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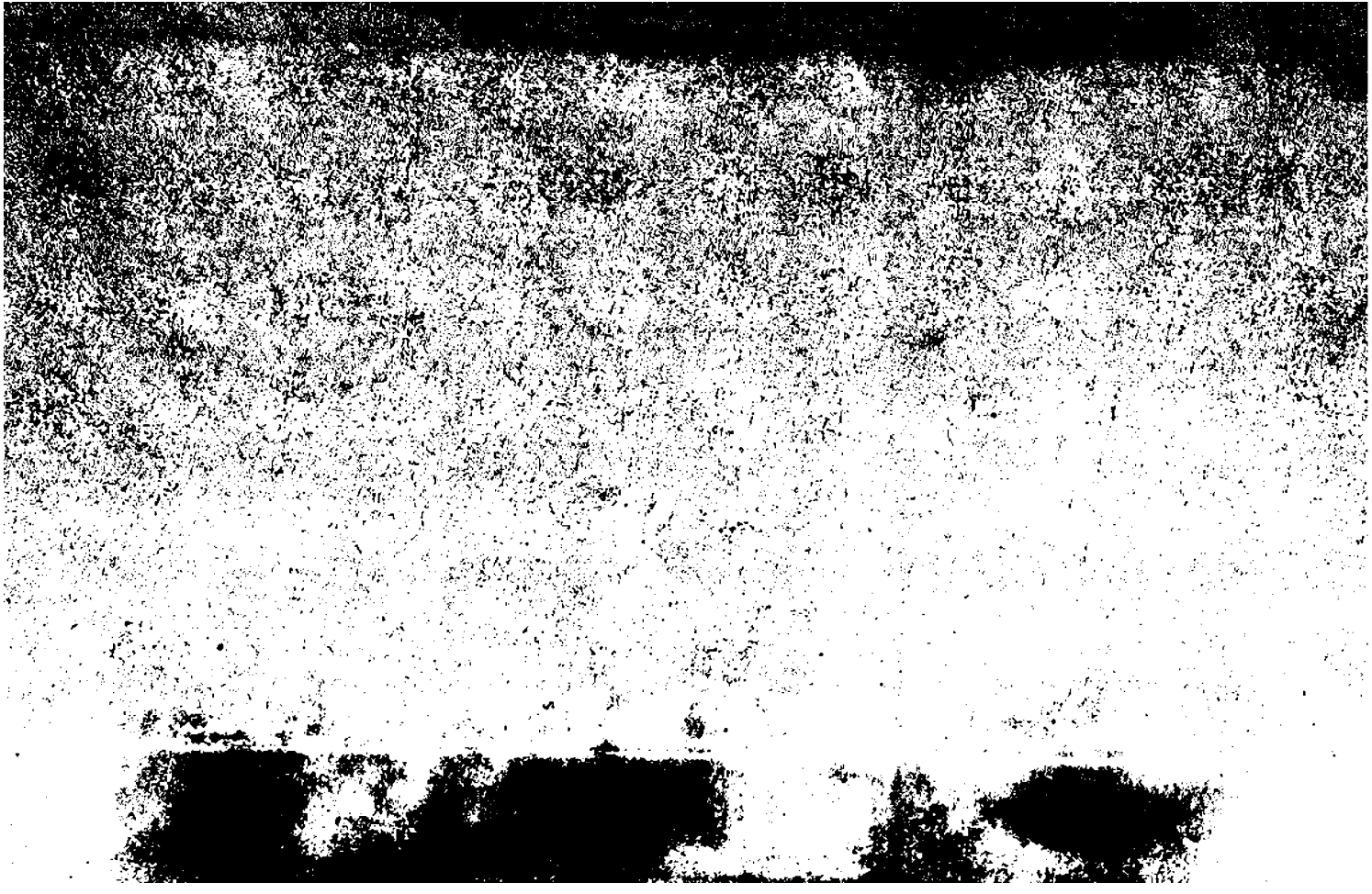

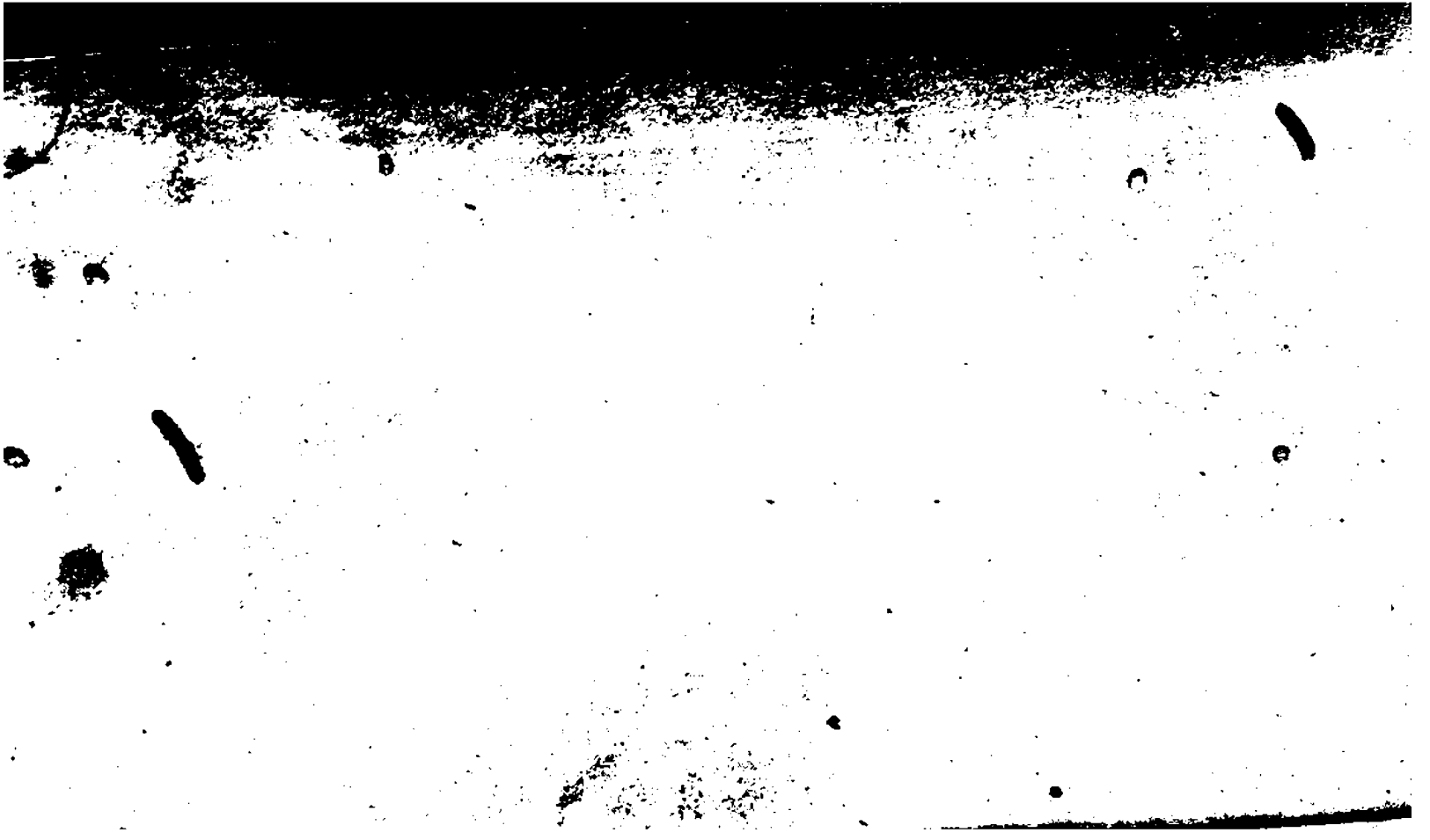

Map
OF
RUSSIA in EUROPE.
Engraved for
THE MODERN TRAVELLER.
English Miles
North C.
Nova Zembla
ARCTIC SEA
KARA SEA
LAPLAND
WHITE SEA
SAMOIED
NOGAI TARTARS
Panda M.
SWEDEN
BALTIC SEA
GULF of BOTHNIA
WIBORG
OLONETZ
Vologda
ARCHANGEL
Pinega
Mezen
Pechora
Kolva
Ustsysolsk
Viatka
Ochansk
Kasan
Wiatka
Cherdyn
Solikamsk
Permia
Ufa
Orenburg
Tobolsk
Tumen
Tara
Ishim
Yeniseisk
Irkutsk
Nertchinsk
Argun R.
Amur R.
Okotsk
Kamtschatka
Anadyrsk
Anadyr R.
Kolyma R.
Yana R.
Lena R.
Olenek R.
Obi R.
Irtish R.
Ob R.
Yenisei R.
Jenisei R.
Petersburg
Cronstadt
Gulf of Finland
REVEL
Gulf of Riga
RIGA
Mitau
LIVONIA
COURLAND
Konigsberg
Wilna
Grodno
Minsk
Mohilev
Warsaw
Lublin
Volhynia
Lemberg
Louitz
Cracow
Podolia
Kaminiec
Moldavia
Jassy
Bessarabia
Ismail
Akerman
Odessa
Cherson
Nikolaef
ECATERINOSLAV
Ekaterinoslav
Taganrog
Azof
Azof Sea
Crimea
Perekop
Kaffa
Simferopol
Baktchisarai
Sebastopol
Caffa
Kertch
Kertch Strait
Taman
Kuban
Kuban R.
Caucasus
Georgia
Tiflis
Derbent
Astrakhan
Astrakhan R.
Caspian Sea
Volga R.
Don R.
Don
Donetz R.
Donetz
Voronetz
Tambof
Penza
Simbirsk
Saratof
Saratov
Kamyschin
Tzaritzin
Tzaritzin R.
Kalatch
Pallas
Kalmucks
Kalmuck Tartary
Kuban Tartary
Nogai Tartary
Nogai Hord
Crim Tartary
Crim Tartars
Circassia
Circassians
Georgians
Mingrelia
Imeretia
Turkey
R. Danube
R. Kuban
R. Terek
BLACK SEA
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THE

MODERN TRAVELLER.

84089

DESCRIPTION,

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND TOPOGRAPHICAL,

OF THE

VARIOUS COUNTRIES OF THE GLOBE.

IN THIRTY VOLUMES.

By JOSIAH CONDER.

VOLUME THE SEVENTEENTH.

W.i.10

LONDON:

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THE

MODERN TRAVELLER,

ETC. ETC.

RUSSIA.

[An empire in Europe and Asia, lying between lat. 38° N. and 78° N.: bounded on the N. by the Arctic Sea; on the S. by Turkey, the Black Sea, the territory of the Kirguiss Cossacks, and the Chinese dominions; on the E. by the Pacific Ocean; and on the W. by Swedish Lapland, the Gulf of Bothnia, Prussia, and Poland.]

About the middle of the ninth century, an embassy was sent from Theophilus, Emperor of the East, to Lewis, the son of Charlemagne, Emperor of the West. In the train, and under the protection of this embassy, were some Russians: this was the first time that the name of this people was divulged. These Russians, who were envoys of the great duke, having traversed many hostile nations in their journey to Constantinople, were desirous of regaining their country by a safer route; and they accordingly requested the French monarch to send them by sea to Russia, an event which took place A.D. 839. Twenty-two years after this, the foundation of the present kingdom of Russia was laid by Ruric, a Scandinavian

chief. At the head of some Varangians, or Corsairs of the Baltic, he invaded the eastern shores of that sea, and reduced the Finnic and Slavonic tribes that inhabited the neighbourhood of Lake Ladoga. His descendants held the sceptre above 700 years.

His immediate successor gained possession of Kiew, to which place he removed the seat of government from Novogorod. In the tenth century, the Russians were masters of the spacious province of Moscow; the Baltic Sea and Prussia formed their western frontier; they had pushed their conquests to the 60th degree of N. latitude; and towards the S., following the course of the Borysthenes, they had approached the vicinity of the Euxine Sea. Such were the limits of the Russian territories in the tenth century, as laid down by the Emperor Constantine Porphyrogenitus; for even at that early period, they had become formidable to Constantinople. Within 190 years, they had made four attempts to plunder the treasures of that city; and it was even then asserted and believed, that an equestrian statue in the square of Taurus was inscribed with a prophecy, that the Russians would eventually become masters of Constantinople.

All these expeditions against the capital of the Eastern Empire were made by sea: the Borysthenes, crowded and commanded by their numberless boats, afforded them a ready and quick passage into the Euxine, and thence their naval skill and courage conducted them to Constantinople. No permanent result followed from these piratical invasions; but the friendly relations between the Russians and the Emperor of the East, which seem to have been scarcely injured by their occasional wars, led gradually to the civilisation of the former. The baptism of Olga, the wife of Igor, the son of Ruric, may be fixed as the

era of Russian Christianity. She had assumed the sceptre on the death of her husband; and in A.D. 935, sailed from Kiew to Constantinople, where she was baptised. Her family and nation, however, adhered for some time to the idolatry of their fathers; and her son and immediate successor, Sviatoslaw, was more disposed to gain the confidence and applause of his companions and subjects by his rude and undaunted bravery, than to expose himself to their scorn and ridicule by introducing and countenancing a new religion. By his valour, the nations between the Volga and the Danube were subdued and repelled, Bulgaria was conquered, Adrianople was taken, and Constantinople itself was threatened. His further progress, however, was checked by John Zimisces; and after repeated defeats and losses, he was glad to accept the liberal terms offered by the conqueror,—a safe passage to the mouth of the Borysthenes. In his route home to Kiew, he was slain by some of the neighbouring tribes.

Vladimir, his third son, devoted his youthful zeal to multiply and adorn the monuments of idolatry; but the efforts of the Greek missionaries, aided by his desire to marry Anne, sister of the Emperor of Constantinople, converted him to Christianity. All Russia followed his example; and in the next generation, the relics of paganism were extirpated.

The history may be properly, as it is generally, divided into six periods. The first terminates at the death of Vladimir, who divided his territories among his ten children: the second period, from A.D. 1015 to 1258, comprehends the fatal consequences that resulted from this division. Andrew, who reigned in 1157, removed the seat of government from Kiew to the city of Vladimir. Towards the end of this

period, the Tâtars began their invasions of Russia.* The third period comprises the events that occurred from the time of the subjugation of Russia by the Tâtars, to the establishment of the seat of government at Moscow; that is, from A.D. 1238 to 1325. Kiew, which began to decline on the removal of the seat of government from it, was taken by the Tâtars in 1239: after its fall, "the navigation of the Borysthenes was forgotten; the great princes of Vladimir and Moscow were separated from the sea and Christendom, and the divided monarchy was oppressed by the ignominy and blindness of Tâtar servitude." Ivan I., with whom the fourth period commences, during which the greater part of Russia was still subject to the power or the invasions of the Tâtars, declared Moscow the capital of Russia; but that city, about thirty years after it was thus distinguished, was taken and burnt by these Asiatic hordes. In 1425, about eighty years subsequently to this disastrous event, silver money was first coined in Russia. At length, at the commencement of the *fifth* period, in 1462, Ivan III. mounted the throne; a prince who, by his talents and his good fortune, restored union, consistency, and independence to the Russian states.

This great duke, who was surnamed the Proud, united under his government the different principali-

* Mr. Gibbon mentions a curious instance of the influence of the Tâtar invasion, to a distance, and in reference to an article of food to which there seems no probability it could have extended. "In the year 1238, the inhabitants of Gothia (Sweden) and Frise were prevented, by their fear of the Tartars, from sending, as usual, their ships to the herring fishery on the coast of England; and as there was no exportation, forty or fifty of these fish were sold for a shilling (Matthew Paris, p. 196). It is whimsical enough, that the orders of a Mogul khan, who reigned on the borders of China, should have lowered the price of herrings in the English market."—*Decline and Fall*, vol. xi. p. 422, *note*.

ties, or appanages, and subdued Novogorod, which, during the internal troubles and the Tâtar invasion and conquests of Russia, had achieved and preserved its independence. This prince also freed himself and his country entirely from the yoke of the Tâtars, and imposed tribute on the kingdom of Cazan. He invited and encouraged foreigners of talent and information to settle in his territories: by one of them, Aristotle of Bologna, the money was re-coined, and gunpowder and the art of casting cannon were introduced. He died, or was assassinated, A.D. 1505, after a reign of forty-three years.

The next sovereign by whom the territories of Russia were enlarged, was Ivan IV., surnamed the Terrible, and by foreigners the Tyrant: he began his reign in 1533. He first taught his soldiers the use of fire-arms, and by means of these conquered the kingdoms of Cazan and Astrakan. Siberia also was annexed to Russia during his reign. He was not, however, merely a warlike prince: to him the Russians are indebted for the first code of laws, and the introduction of printing. He invited foreign artists to Moscow, encouraged commerce, and permitted the English (one of whose ships, in an attempt to find out the N.E. passage, had discovered Archangel) to establish factories in his dominions. Before his time, as the Russians had no ports except Archangel, which, from its situation, was of no use for foreign commerce, their trade had been altogether in the hands of the Livonians; but, by the conquest of Astrakan, the commerce of the Caspian Sea was opened to them, and by the temporary conquest of Narva in 1558, they were first introduced to an experience of the advantages they might derive from the possession of ports in the Baltic. It ought also

to be recorded to the honour of Ivan IV., that he encouraged religious toleration. At the death of his successor, Theodor I., in 1598, the dynasty of Rurik ended: it had reigned above seven centuries.

Boris, the brother-in-law of the last sovereign, whose talents and activity had raised him to the highest offices of the state, was elected in his stead: his reign was distinguished and disturbed by famine, insurrections, and impostors, several of whom assumed the name of Demetrius, the son of Ivan IV., whom Boris had murdered.

The next reign, that of Theodor II., the son of Boris, was also filled with trouble and disaster. Deserted by his principal generals, defeated by the false Demetrius, and at last altogether forsaken, Moscow was seized by its own inhabitants, the palace stormed, and Theodor deposed and strangled. The false Demetrius now ascended the throne, but his folly and his vices drove him from it, at the end of eleven months, when he also was murdered. The reign of his successor was, if possible, still more disgraceful and calamitous to Russia: his name was Vassili. He had headed the insurrection against Demetrius; but scarcely was he seated on the throne, when a general insurrection broke out; pillage and murder, especially of the Poles, took place; impostors arose; and Russia, thus distracted, weakened, and in confusion, was invaded by the Poles, who deposed, captured, and sent to Poland the sovereign, where he died in 1612. From his deposition in 1610 to 1613, there was an interregnum. While it lasted, Russia was invaded by the Poles from the south, who occupied Moscow; and by the Swedes from the West, who seized Novogorod. In this disastrous state, two leaders appeared, Minin and Pojarskü; the former a simple citizen, a butcher

of Nignei-Novogorod, the other a nobleman and warrior. By their talents, aided by the zeal of the people, the Poles were repeatedly vanquished, Moscow was wrested from them, and, finally, Russia restored to political independence. Michael, the first sovereign of the present dynasty, — the House of Romanof, was elected Czar by a general assembly of the nobles, burghers, merchants, and persons of property and distinction. By his wise and cautious administration, universal tranquillity was re-established.

Michael was elected in 1613, and reigned thirty-two years: his reign was glorious for himself, and prosperous for his country. He was succeeded by his son Alexis, father of Peter the Great. Alexis directed his views and endeavours principally to such plans as would secure Russia at once from internal troubles and foreign invasion. He introduced a more regular discipline into the army; revised, amended, and new-modelled the code of laws compiled by Ivan; invited foreign officers into his service; and built a navy on the Caspian Sea, under the direction of ship-builders whom he procured from Amsterdam. In short, he may be said to have been the first sovereign of Russia who adopted those measures for the improvement of his country, which have been regularly and steadily pursued by almost every one of his successors; and it has been justly remarked, that his merit has been too much overlooked, especially by those who wished to flatter and exalt Peter the Great.

Alexis was immediately succeeded by Theodor III., a son by his first wife. During his short reign, from 1676 to 1682, the influence of his sister Sophia, and the abilities of his prime minister, Galitzin, supplied his own want of energy and talent; and his government proved advantageous to the country. On

his death, Ivan Alexeivitch, and Peter the Great, the son of Alexis by his second wife, ascended the throne conjointly: Sophia and Peter were, however, in fact, the sovereigns. The principal events of the reign of Peter the Great, and their results, are well known. He first formed a Russian navy, re-organised and increased the army, promulgated necessary and useful laws, purified, as far as he durst, the religion of the country, introduced and protected foreigners of talent and information; and thus established arts, sciences, and literature. His activity in war was beneficial to Russia: he greatly enlarged her territories, especially by the countries on the Baltic, which he wrested from Sweden. By building St. Petersburgh, and making it the seat of empire, he brought Russia more immediately and powerfully in contact with the rest of Europe, and thus gave her an influence in its politics, and a better opportunity of keeping pace with it in power, civilisation, wealth, and science. His real merits, and the benefits he actually conferred on his country, are sufficiently great in themselves, and do not require to be exaggerated, as they generally have been, by representing Russia as weaker and more barbarous than it actually was when he succeeded to the throne; or by overlooking or depreciating those measures of his father's which set him an example, and prepared and smoothed the way for what he undertook and accomplished. Peter the Great died in 1725, and was succeeded by his wife, the Empress Catherine I. To her prudence and talents he had been much indebted; and during her short reign of little more than two years, she prosecuted with vigour and success all his plans for the aggrandisement and improvement of Russia. The reign of Peter II., grandson of Peter

the Great, presents nothing very remarkable. He was succeeded in 1730, by the Empress Anne, niece of Peter the Great. This princess, who suffered herself to be governed by Biron, interfered with the affairs of Poland, carried on a successful war with the Turks and Tâtars, and invaded the Crimea. She named, as her successor, Ivan, son of the Princess Anne and the Prince of Brunswick, and died in 1740. During Ivan's reign, occurred scenes of intrigue and murder, such as have more than once since that period stained the Russian annals: after a reign of twenty-four years, he was succeeded by the Empress Elizabeth. This sovereign waged wars with Sweden and with Prussia, in both of which she was successful. During her reign, punishment by death was unknown. In her personal character and conduct she was notoriously licentious. In 1761, Peter III., grandson by his mother of Peter the Great, ascended the throne. He rendered himself obnoxious to the Russians by his attempts to change their national customs. His wife Catherine, a woman of great talents, but of no principle, taking advantage of his imprudence and unpopularity, forced him to resign the crown, and after his murder succeeded him.

The reign of Catherine II. was one of the most brilliant and successful that Russia had witnessed, but was at the same time stained by political turpitude, as in the partition of Poland, and by most barbarous murders, such as took place at Praga, near Warsaw, and on the capture of Ismael in Bessarabia. The licentiousness of her morals equalled her political duplicity; and the savage manner in which she ordered or permitted her generals to carry on war, was revolting to humanity. It must be acknowledged, however, that she pursued with zeal, perseverance,

and success, what may be justly characterised as the hereditary plans of the Russian sovereigns, the extension of their empire in all directions, but more especially towards Constantinople, the Mediterranean, and the East Indies. She was continually at war with Turkey, the fleet of which was burnt; and was one of the confederate powers in the partition of Poland. She added to her territories the Crimea, Azof, a part of Cuban, and all the country between the Dnieper, the Bog, the Dniester, and the Black Sea. Having plainly and strongly pointed out her crimes as a sovereign and a woman, justice requires that we should not pass over her meritorious actions. To her hereditary love and plans of conquest, to be achieved by any means and at any cost, she added what may be deemed an equally hereditary object, the civilisation and improvement of her subjects. She formed a new code of laws, on principles perhaps too abstract, and having too little reference to the peculiar character, habits, and circumstances of her people, but, in their influence, generally beneficial. She encouraged the arts and sciences, literature, and commerce. One of the chief and most effectual, as well as obvious means of improving Russia, that of inviting foreign settlers, which seems to have been adopted even so early as the reign of the immediate successors of Ruric, — was followed by her with great effect. But she not only invited and encouraged foreigners of talent and science to settle in her dominions; she also established colonies of them on the Volga and the Don. She embellished the capital, and in short advanced in many respects the improvement of the nation. At no period and on no occasion was her cautious, or, perhaps, it may be called selfish policy, more apparent and influential than in her conduct at the commencement of the French Re-

volution. She was open and violent in her reprobation of it; encouraged the views and plans of the continental sovereigns in their attempts to crush it; held out promises of assistance; made preparations for it; but died without having done any thing effectual and decisive. Her reign began in 1762, and ended in 1796.

Her successor, Paul, exhibited through the whole of his reign the character and conduct of a madman: his freaks and extravagant despotism can scarcely be paralleled even in the annals of Eastern tyranny. His foreign politics were vacillating and unaccountable; his domestic regulations, if possible, still more absurd, dangerous to himself, and utterly useless, if not positively injurious, to his people. At length, after a reign of five years, he was deposed and assassinated.

The Emperor Alexander, who at present sits on the throne, succeeded him in 1801. At one time the friend and ally of Bonaparte, and the sharer with him in the spoils of his unprovoked, unprincipled, but successful wars, — at another time, his decided opponent, censuring in the most open manner his plans of aggrandisement; at the same moment, protecting and encouraging Bible Societies and the education of his people, and interfering with the spread of political knowledge and of liberty in states far from his own, and with which he possessed not the smallest right to interfere; sometimes wise and liberal, sometimes the reverse in his commercial policy; sometimes exhibiting great and undoubted decision and firmness of character, at other times vacillating, undetermined, and easily guided; his character baffles all who endeavour to describe him as he actually is. In the midst, however, of this apparent inconsistency, he also has been guided by the two hereditary principles of the Russian

monarchs, — the extension of the empire, especially towards the S. and S.E., and the improvement and civilisation of his subjects, chiefly by inviting and encouraging men of science and literature, and by establishing colonies of foreign agriculturists.* The invasion of Russia by the French; the unparalleled misery and destruction resulting to them from that enterprise; the burning of Moscow; the march of the Russian troops into France; the resignation of Bonaparte, and the restoration of the Bourbons, both of which events may justly be ascribed to the disasters which the French experienced during their Russian campaign; the influential and decided part which Alexander was thus justified and enabled to take in the politics of the continent of Europe: — these are the most remarkable events that have hitherto distinguished his reign.

"But a few centuries ago," remarks Dr. Lyall, "the Russian territory formed a fourth part of the present European Russia, and about a seventeenth part of the present Russian empire. In the reign of Ivan III., this territory was augmented 10,000 square miles; and in the reign of Vassili, 14,000 square miles. Ivan IV. tripled the extent of his dominions, and Theodor I. greatly extended them. In the reign of Alexis, all the provinces that had been taken by the Poles, were reconquered; and besides, he added 257,000 square miles

* It ought not, however, to be forgotten, that the Russian autocrat, though the most despotic in theory of any monarch in Christendom, is, in reality, thralled and controlled by a formidable combination of powerful and unprincipled nobles, to whom it is well understood that the liberal views of the pupil of La Harpe were exceedingly unpalatable. It is highly probable, that much of what is questionable, both in the general and the domestic policy of the Emperor, is attributable to his situation rather than his deliberate preferences.

to the Russian states. Under the sway of Theodor III. the dreary region of Nova Zembla was acquired. Peter the Great extended his dominions 280,000 square miles. The Empress Anne, treading in the same path of augmentation, left behind her a realm of above 324,000 square miles in extent; and while Catherine II. held the sceptre of the north, the territory was increased to 335,000 square miles. In the reign of Paul, and since the present sovereign ascended the throne, the Empire has been enlarged to no less than 345,000 geographical square miles, of which 85,000 belong to Europe, and 260,000 to Asia. And we might prophecy, if the same system of aggrandisement be persevered in, he may bequeath to his successor an empire of 400,000, or even 500,000 square miles. There is matter here to occupy the mind of the politician; there is room for the serious meditations of Europe, and especially for the continental sovereigns!"

TERRITORIAL BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.

THE Russian empire exceeds in magnitude the largest monarchy in ancient or modern times.* It is

* The Roman empire, at the height of its grandeur, was equal only to the European part of Russia: its greatest length, from the Euphrates to the Western Ocean, amounted to 3,000 miles: its greatest breadth, from the Wall of Antoninus to the Pillars of Hercules, 2,000 miles. From Riga to the Haven of Peter and Paul, the length of the Russian empire is 11,434 miles. The possessions of the Romans extended somewhat short of 32° of latitude; those of Russia exceed 35°. Mr. Tooke justly remarks, however, that the seeming superiority immediately vanishes, when we contrast the climate, fertility, populousness, and civilisation of the Roman empire, which extended over the finest part of the temperate zone, from the 24th to the 25th degree of north latitude, with the excessive cold, the sterility, and the scanty and barbarous population of a very large portion of the Russian territory.

bounded on the W. by Swedish Lapland and the Gulf of Bothnia, Prussia, and Gallicia; on the S. by the Ottoman empire, the Black Sea, and the steppes of the Kirguiss Cossacks; from the Irtish to the Eastern Ocean by the Chinese territories. The boundary line between the Russian and Chinese empires, is the most extensive on the globe, reaching from about the 65th to the 145th degree of longitude: eighty degrees of which, in latitude 50°, computed at 39 geographical miles, will give the result of 3,120 miles as the extent of the boundary line between the two states. Towards the east, Russia is bounded by the Pacific, or Oriental Ocean, and to the north by the Frozen Ocean. Besides this immense extent of territory, Russia possesses some islands in the Baltic, the Kuriles, Aleutian, and other groupes near Kamschatka, and some establishments on the north-west coast of America. The Emperor of Russia is also King of Poland, that is, of that part of Poland which Russia at various times has seized. This was confirmed to him, and the title of *king* given, by the congress of Vienna in the year 1815.

The greatest extent of this empire is from the west side of the Isle of Oisel,* at the entrance of the Gulf of Riga, to Cape Tchoutzhotsk, in Siberia; that is, (comprehending the most distant isles,) from the 20th to the 190th degree of east longitude from Greenwich: consequently it stretches over 170 degrees of longitude. Its extent from north to south varies; in some places it begins at the 47th, and terminates at the 71st degree of north latitude; in others, at the

* Strictly speaking, the Aland Islands, which lie very near the Swedish coast, form the frontier of the Russian empire on this side: the line of their coast was settled as the boundary between the two kingdoms by the treaty of 1809.

45th, the 40th, and even the 55th degree, and terminates at the 73d or 78th: its greatest extent in a southerly direction is 38°.

Though the name of Russia is now given to the whole empire, the appellation was originally confined to two districts; 1. Great Russia, which has always borne this name, comprising Moscow, Vladimir, Novogorod, and the adjacent tracts of country; and, 2. White Russia, an appellation long confined to the present government of Smolensko, but under which, at present, are likewise comprehended the governments of Polotzk and Mohilof. The large district toward the Ukraine, Poland, and Turkey, is sometimes called New Russia. These are the original possessions or very early conquests of Russia; but, by the Russian empire is likewise understood more recent conquests.—1. The kingdom of Cazan; 2. the kingdom of Astrakan; 3. Siberia; 4. the provinces on the shores of the Baltic captured from the Swedes by Peter the Great, and, very recently, by Alexander; 5. the countries wrested from Poland and Turkey; 6. the Crimea, Cuban, Georgia, the government of Caucasus, &c.; 7. the islands in the Eastern Ocean, besides smaller districts, and the islands and settlements in America.

Peter the Great first divided the empire into provinces. Catherine II. made some alterations at the commencement of her reign; and she subsequently divided the whole empire into three regions, the north, middle, and south. Each region was subdivided into governments, and these again into districts, military governors being appointed to each government. The Emperor Alexander diminished their number, so that at present there are military governors only at Petersburgh, Finland, Riga, Mohilof, Grodno, Moscow, Smolensko, Kiew, Caucasus,

and Orenburgh; there are also civil governors over these districts, but they are subordinate to the military. There are governors-general over Tver, Siberia, Permia, Lesser Russia, and the Taurida; the rest of the provinces have each a civil governor. There are in the whole fifty-two governments; these, however, do not comprehend the recent acquisitions in Finland, the circle of Bielostosk, and some districts in Gallicia.

POPULATION.

An inspection of the map of Russia, as well as the general account we have given of this empire, will prevent us from being surprised at the comparative smallness of its population: a climate excessively cold and ungenial, immense tracts of country unimproved, and many of them unimprovable by the utmost skill and labour of man, and the ignorance and barbarism of a large portion of the inhabitants, are circumstances that cannot possibly co-exist with a numerous population. The population of Russia, indeed, has increased greatly within the last century; but not, as has been the case with the United States of America, from immigration, or the existence of causes particularly favourable to such increase, but almost entirely from accessions of territories which have generally been acquired in fertile districts. The following table shews the progressive increase of the population of Russia by births, conquests, and the introduction of foreign colonies, during the last hundred years:*

* Where there is no number under the census, the statement is taken from different statistical works referred to by Dr. Lyall in his pamphlet on the Military Colonies of Russia.

Census.	Year.	Number of people.
1	1722	14,000,000
2	1742	16,000,000
3	1762	20,000,000
4	1782	28,000,000
5	1795	36,000,000
—	1807	35,000,000
6	1811	37,000,000
—	1818	45,542,000
—	1824	50,000,000

Of the 45,542,000 inhabitants which Russia contained in the year 1818, Cromè calculates that 11,000,000 belonged to Siberia; whereas of the 50,000,000 in 1824, Dupin reckons only about 6,000,000 as inhabiting Siberia. In some provinces, the births to the deaths are as 13 to 10, 20 to 10, and 30 to 10. From 1722 to 1792, that is, in seventy years, the population increased from 14 to 35,000,000. It has been calculated, that it has doubled in less than half a century. But it is evident, that where increase of population depends almost exclusively on conquest, there can be no data for such calculation.

Perhaps, in no population of equal number in any other part of the earth, is there so great a variety of races of people, as the 50,000,000 of the Russian empire comprehend. They may be thus distinguished and divided:—1. Those of Slavonic origin: the Russians (properly so called) and the Poles are of this race, and likewise the inhabitants of Lithuania, Courland, &c.; they form the majority of the population, amounting to about 34,000,000. 2. Germans: all the noblesse and burghers of Finland, Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland, are Germans, as well as most of the colonists in the interior and south of the empire: with these, as of the same Gothic race, may be enumerated the Swedes who inhabit Finland, and the Danes, who inhabit two of the Baltic isles belonging

to Russia. 3. The Fins: these are subdivided into thirteen tribes, the principal of which are the Fins Proper in Finland; the Esthonians and Livonians, in the governments of Riga and Revel; the Laplanders; the Permians, and the Ostians of the Ob. 4. People of the Tâtar race: of these there are numerous varieties; the chief are, the Tâtars, generally so called, who inhabit the Crimea, the southern districts of the Volga, &c. &c. 5. Georgians, Caucasians, and Circassians. 6. People of the Mongol race: these are subdivided into the Mongols Proper, who inhabit the southern part of Siberia, the Calmucks, and the Bouriats. 7. The Samoyeds; nomadic tribes on the borders of the Frozen Ocean. 8. The Manshures, Tunguses, and Lamutes. 9. The nomad tribes, in the north and east of Siberia. 10. Turks and Armenians, in Moldavia and Bessarabia.

The religion of Russia is that of the Greek Church, but all other religions are tolerated, and possess liberty of worship. Prior to the reign of Peter the Great, the powers and privileges of the patriarch of the Russias were excessive, but that emperor reduced them within moderate and defined limits. The clergy are very numerous, but, in general, poor and ignorant: the secular clergy can marry. It is reckoned that there are nearly 19,000 cathedrals and parish churches in the empire, besides monasteries and nunneries. Peter the Great and Catherine II. reformed the discipline and morals, and curtailed the privileges of the clergy in many respects. The Slavonic population of Russia are all of the Greek religion; there are also many Greek Christians in Asiatic Russia and Siberia; the other sects of Christians are, Roman Catholics, consisting chiefly of the Poles, Lithuanians, and Germans; Lutherans, and Armenians. There

are immense numbers of Jews, especially in Russian Poland; Mohammedans, among the Tâtar inhabitants; Bramins, and various other kinds of idolaters, among the Caucasians, Georgians, Circassians, and Mongol tribes.

The Slavonic is the foundation of the Russian language; it differs essentially from the Celtic, the Gothic, and the Latin, the origin and the materials of all the other languages of Europe: there are thirty-five characters in the alphabet, many of which express sounds extremely difficult, from the combination of consonants, to be pronounced by a foreigner. The Russian language is little known to the rest of Europe; nor has it till lately been much cultivated in Russia itself, in consequence of the German prevailing so generally among the higher and literary classes. Latterly, however, Russian literature has begun to flourish, and it has exhibited proofs of richness and sublimity in its poetry. It would be uninteresting and almost endless to enumerate the languages of the numerous tribes scattered through the Russian empire: of the three great and distinct barbaric nations in Asiatic Russia, the Tâtars, Mongols, and Tunguses, the languages are radically different.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

In a country stretching from the Frozen Ocean to the Black Sea, great diversity of climate must be expected: but a very imperfect and erroneous notion of the climate of this empire will be formed, if the limits of its latitude alone are regarded. It is well known, that the western side of a country often enjoys a milder, though a moister climate than the eastern side; and that under the same parallel of latitude, distance from the sea increases the severity of the

climate. Hence, in proceeding under any parallel of latitude, from the western limits of the Roman empire across Europe into Asiatic Russia, the cold is found gradually to increase; so that Siberia, a great part of which lies within the same parallels of latitude as Great Britain, experiences a degree of cold scarcely endurable, and very many degrees above that experienced in this country, even for a few days, in the most severe winter. Perhaps, the degree of cold often experienced on the borders of the Black Sea, though not so great, is more unaccountable; nor does it seem to admit of a satisfactory explanation, from the want of those beneficial influences on climate produced by improved cultivation. It is plain, however, that the severity of the Russian climate in the central parts of the empire, and its comparative coldness even in many of its southern districts, must be ascribed to immense forests and undrained land.

European Russia may be generally characterised as a champaign country, consisting, for the most part, of plains, or steppes, of immense extent: these are, in general, dry and healthy. Some of them, in the southern districts, are elevated considerably above the level of the sea; but in the northern and eastern parts of Asiatic Russia, the plains, which occupy a very large tract, are marshy. Forests of great extent are common, especially between Petersburgh and Moscow, near Moscow, and in the southern parts of Asiatic Russia.

The rivers of Russia are very numerous and large, though comparatively few of them communicate directly with any of the great oceans of the globe. In European Russia, the Volga, that falls into the Caspian, and divides, for a great part of its course, Europe and Asia; the Don, or Tanais, which falls

into the Sea of Azof; the Dnieper, or Borysthenes, which falls into the Euxine; the Dneister, which falls into the same sea; the Dwina, which falls into the Gulf of Archangel; the Duna, which flows into the Baltic; and the Neva, which falls into the Gulf of Finland;—are the largest and most celebrated. Several of the rivers in Asiatic Russia approach, in magnitude and in the length of their course, any others on the globe; but these rivers, also, in general, conduct to seas unapproachable by navigation or commerce. The Ob, which is the largest, flows into a gulf of the same name that joins the Arctic Ocean. The same ocean receives the Lena and Yenisci, both rivers of a long course and great magnitude, while the Sea of Baikal receives the Selenga. The lakes and inland seas of Russia are numerous, and some of them very large: the chief lakes of European Russia are in the north-west; namely, those of Onega and Ladoga; to the south-west is the Lake of Peipouss; near Novogorod, the Lake of Ilmen; in the same government is the Beilo, or White Lake. There are also several lakes near the rise of the Volga. Some of the lakes in Asiatic Russia are so immense, that they deserve and have received the appellation of seas: of these, the Caspian is the most celebrated and extensive. Another remarkable detached sea is that of Baikal in Siberia. In the northern part of this district of Asiatic Russia is the Lake of Piasinsko; and between the Ob and the Irtish is a large lake, nearly half the size of the Baikal.

From the general description already given of the face of the country in European Russia, it will be evident that it does not abound in mountains: the most important are those of Olonetz in the north, and those of Ural, which divide Europe from Asia. In Asiatic

Russia, the grandest chain is that of Altai in Siberia: the mountains of Nershinsk, or Russian Daouria, near the Selenga and Amur, are also of great height and extent. The mountains of Caucasus, in the south, form a partial limit between the Russian and Persian empires.

The manufactures of Russia are few and unimportant: her raw produce, or such articles as require little skill, industry, and capital to fit them for the use of man, constitute the sources of her wealth. Her commerce by sea is carried on in the Baltic and the Euxine; she has also a considerable maritime commerce in the Caspian: her land commerce is principally with Prussia, Persia, and China.

This brief, general sketch of the Russian empire will enable our readers to come with more interest and advantage to the perusal of the routes in various directions, which we are about to describe. In tracing these routes, opportunities will be afforded of entering fully into most of those subjects of which we have now given only a hasty outline, and of laying before our readers a faithful and accurate picture of Russia and its inhabitants, such as they at present exist.

The two principal cities of this vast empire are St. Petersburgh and Moscow; the latter its ancient, the former its modern capital. The route between these is the most frequented and the most important, though not the most interesting and characteristic, in the whole empire. A description of these capitals and of this route will, therefore, claim our first attention.

ST. PETERSBURGH.

ST. PETERSBURGH is situated on the banks of the Neva, at its mouth, and at the eastern extremity of

Lug.r on Steel.
by H. Adlard.
PETERSBURGH.

the Gulf of Finland, in 59° 56′ 23″ north latitude, and 30° 18′ 45″ east longitude, from Greenwich: it is built partly on islands formed by the Neva, and partly on both sides of that river. The situation is low and level: it is thus exposed to considerable inundations from the waters of the gulf and those of the river; the most extraordinary and destructive of these we shall presently notice. The Neva forms an angle where the city is built, its course running first northward, and then westward. In this angle, on the left bank of the river, is situated the most considerable portion of St. Petersburgh, in a form approaching that of a triangle. The whole city is divided into five parts: the Admiralty Quarter; the Vassili Ostroff, or island; the Island of St. Petersburgh; the district of Wiburgh; and the Foundry Quarter. The islands of St. Petersburgh and Vassili are insulated tracts on the north of the river, and constitute the site of the original buildings of the city. These five districts are subdivided into eleven smaller divisions, over each of which is placed a major of police, assisted by several subordinate officers.

No city in Europe, ancient or modern, equals St. Petersburgh in the width and regularity of its streets: this character belongs even to the oldest quarters of it. The Admiralty is the most elegant and fashionable division: three streets diverge in straight lines, each of which is two miles in length. In general, the long and principal streets are intersected at regular distances by smaller ones. In the old districts, particularly in the Vassili Ostroff, there are many wooden houses; and in the suburbs, there are many spaces unoccupied by buildings. Improvements and additions, however, are constantly going on; and, as the old houses decay, new ones of

brick are built: stone edifices are very rare, though the stucco with which the brick is covered and ornamented, gives them very much the appearance of stone. The roofs of most of the houses are flat, and covered with iron or copper; tiles, formerly common for this purpose, are now seldom employed. The timber houses are generally built of round balks; the outsides cased with boards and painted: they cannot by law be more than one story with a cellaring. The brick houses usually consist of only two stories: most of them have a basement story, raised a little above the pavement; this is often built of granite, and is occupied by the servants, or let out for shops. From the low situation of the town, the streets, except in frost, are wet and marshy; they are mostly paved with stone, though some are still covered with planks, the original rude covering; there is a foot pavement, which, even when the centre of the streets is little better than a morass, is dry and comfortable for foot-passengers.

What is called the first Admiralty quarter, is the smallest but most elegant division of Petersburgh. Within its circuit are twenty-three structures of the first magnitude. Of these, the imperial winter palace is the most celebrated. It is 450 feet long, 380 broad, and 70 high; but it is more remarkable for its size than for its architecture: in it is deposited an immense variety of curious and costly works of all descriptions. Connected with it, by means of a covered gallery, is the hermitage, a spacious edifice, so called from its being the scene of imperial retirement: it was built by Catherine II., and contains a valuable collection of paintings, including the collection of Houghton House, the loss of which, as Mr. Coxe justly remarks, every lover of the arts must sincerely regret,—a library, and

a cabinet of natural history. The second building in this quarter of the town worthy of notice, is the marble palace. Few buildings in any part of Europe surpass this in magnificence: it is three stories high, the lowermost of granite, the superstructure of grey marble, decorated with columns and pilasters of a reddish marble. Nothing in the exterior presents itself to the eye but stone or metal: the window-frames are of brass highly polished; the roof rests on iron bars, and is covered with sheet copper. The whole forms an oblong quadrangle. It is situated on the quay of the Neva; but, had the principal façade been turned towards that river, the whole building would have had an incomparably grander effect. It was built originally for Gregory Orloff, one of the favourites of Catherine II., and at his death reverted to that empress. In this quarter of Petersburgh are also the college of foreign affairs, the post-offices, the senate-house, the loan-bank, and the admiralty.

The only church worthy of notice in this part of the city, is that of St. Isaac: it was begun by Catherine II., who, however, did not live to finish it. Like the marble palace, the basement is granite, and the superstructure of marble, jasper, and porphyry, both within and without. It was one of the freaks of Paul to finish it with brick. The three straight, long, and beautiful streets of this quarter of the town have been already mentioned: they are called perspectives, because from each may be seen the gilded spire of the Admiralty. Of these, the Nevski perspective is the most remarkable: there is in it only one little turn, and it is at least half as wide again as Oxford Street in London. "The numerous hotels and the shops," observes Storch, "which are mostly placed together in this street, occasion such a con-

fluence of people, and such a constant bustle, that give it a consequence that is wanting to most parts of St. Petersburgh. But, though the Nevski perspective is so remarkable for all these advantages, it becomes infinitely more so in the sight of the philosophical spectator, as the monument of a wise and enlightened toleration. One church here is concatenated with another: Protestants, Catholics, Lutherans, Armenians, and Greeks, have in this street their several churches beside and facing each other."

The celebrated equestrian statue of Peter the Great is in this quarter: it is the work of Falconet, a French statuary, and is in every respect one of the noblest specimens of art which the last century produced. It is of a colossal size. The emperor is represented crowned with laurel, in an Asiatic vest, his right hand in the act of blessing his people, his left holding the reins: he is mounting a precipice, the summit of which he has nearly reached; and the horse is rearing on his hind legs. The immense weight of the statue is ingeniously contrived to be supported by the full and flowing tail of the horse slightly touching a bronze serpent. The pedestal, a reddish granite, is formed of a stone which, though upwards of 1,500 tons weight, was brought to Petersburgh from a morass about nine miles distant. In its original dimensions it was forty-two feet long at the base, thirty-six at the top, twenty-one thick, and seventeen high;—"a bulk greatly surpassing in weight the most boasted monuments of Roman grandeur." Its size, however, was necessarily diminished, in order to form a perfect station for the statue. This magnificent monument is not spoiled by an elaborate or pompous eulogy. The simple and concise inscription, "Catherine II. to Peter I.," admirably corresponds to the character

of the man to whom it is dedicated, the materials of which it is formed, its magnitude, design, and execution.

As we recede from this centre of magnificence and luxury, the city assumes a more calm and common appearance. The chief public edifices of the second Admiralty quarter are, the new court stables, the college of medicine, and the opera-house. Two of the most considerable Greek churches are also within the precincts of this quarter; that of Notre Dame of Cazan, and that of St. Nicholas. The former on several accounts merits a particular description. It was originally built in 1734 by the Empress Anne; the dome was then of wood, and its architecture ill corresponded to that of more modern edifices erected near it; being, moreover, considered as the cathedral church of Petersburgh, in which the Russian sovereigns returned thanks to the Deity for the prosperous events of their reigns, — it was determined to rebuild it in a manner and on a scale more appropriate to its character and peculiar use. Accordingly, the Emperor Paul, in 1800, ordered plans for this purpose to be submitted to him: that of a Russian architect was approved of; but the death of that emperor occurring, the execution devolved on Alexander. Ten years were employed in the building, and it was consecrated on the 15th of September, 1811. In every respect it is magnificent and rich: the door before the principal altar, and the balustrade around it, are of massy silver. The jaspers and marbles of Olonetz and Siberia are employed in great profusion, both in the form of mosaic and in other ornaments. Its exterior is very rich and beautiful: there is a colonnade of one hundred and fifty columns of the Corinthian order; their bases and chapiters are of cast iron. The por-

tico is adorned with two bronze statues of the archangels, Gabriel and Michael. The principal external door is likewise of bronze: it is a perfect copy of the famous door of the cathedral of Florence. Every article and material employed in the construction and ornamenting of this church is the production of the Russian empire; and almost all the artists, architects, painters, and sculptors were Russians. It is rich in precious stones, and in gold and silver vessels, the gifts of the imperial family.

The new Bank, perhaps the most elegant building in St. Petersburgh, is the principal ornament of the third Admiralty quarter. Its architecture is simply grand, the workmanship of the very first order: its roof is covered with plates of iron. It consists of three distinct compartments: two covered corridors connect the main building with the side edifices.

The Vassili Ostroff is the largest island in the Neva. Only the eastern and smaller part is inhabited; the rest is covered with gardens, trees, and morass. Three principal streets traverse this island from east to west, and these are intersected at right angles by twelve smaller ones. This division is the seat of commerce and of learning, the Exchange and the Academy of Sciences being in it. The building in which the meetings of the latter are held, is a very elegant structure. The edifices of the land-cadet corps are also in this island. Towards the isle of St. Petersburgh are the Custom-house and the new Exchange; the latter was finished in the reign of the present emperor. The Lutheran church of St. Catherine, designed partly from the model of the Temple of Concord, is the most remarkable for its architecture in this division of the city.

The Petersburgh quarter consists of several islands,

some of which are little built upon. The Petersburgh island contains the first wooden cottage of Peter the Great. This he ordered to be built in the beginning of the year 1703, when he gave the island the name of St. Petersburgh, from which the new metropolis took its name. The hut is low and small: over it is erected a brick building on arches to preserve it from the weather. "Near it was soon afterwards constructed another wooden habitation, but larger and more commodious, in which Prince Mentchikof resided, and gave audience to foreign ministers. At a small distance was an inn, much frequented by the courtiers and persons of all ranks, to which Peter himself on Sundays, after Divine service, frequently repaired, and would there drink with his suite and others who happened to be present, as spectators of the fire-works and diversions which were exhibited by his orders." * As soon as this emperor had extended his conquests to the shores of the Baltic, he erected a fortress on a small island at the mouth of the Neva: this, which is sometimes regarded as a separate quarter, more properly belongs to the Petersburgh quarter of the town. When this fortress was built, the island contained only a small hamlet, consisting of a few fishermen's huts. An Author who was in Russia at that period informs us, "that the labourers were not furnished with the necessary tools, as pickaxes, spades, shovels, wheelbarrows, planks, and the like; notwithstanding which, the work went on with such expedition, that it was surprising to see the fortress raised within less than five months, though the earth, which is very scarce thereabouts, was, for the greater part, carried by the labourers in the skirts of their clothes, and in bags made of

* Coxe's Travels in Russia, vol. ii. p. 239.

rags and old mats, the use of wheelbarrows being then unknown to them." *

The Wiburgh quarter is more rural in its appearance than any of the others, since, beside the street along the right bank of the Neva, it is principally occupied by the cottages of the peasantry: there are nevertheless two grand mansions within its precincts. Besides the great military hospital founded by Peter the Great, and some other public buildings of less magnitude, it also contains a wharf for merchant-ships. The division of the Foundry is so called from a foundry established there: the most remarkable edifices and establishments in it are, the Institute of Catherine, for the education of young ladies, the convent of the Resurrection for the same purpose, the great magazine for spirituous liquors and salt, the foundry already mentioned, the arsenal, and the Taurida palace. This, originally the pantheon of Prince Potemkin, was purchased on his death by Catherine for her autumnal palace: it is remarkable for its vast galleries, its winter garden, its English garden, and its grotto formed of mirrors. The convent of St. Alexander Newsky adorns this quarter: it contains apartments for sixty *religieux*, a large dwelling for the Archbishop of Petersburgh, a seminary, five churches, a cemetery, and a garden.

The opposite divisions of St. Petersburgh, situated on each side of the Neva, are connected by pontoons or bridges of boats. The islands we have already described, are formed by two branches of this river. Over the main stream, which is called the Great Neva, there are two bridges of pontoons: the one which connects the first Admiralty quarter with the Vassili Ostroff, is 130 fathoms long, and rests on twenty-one

* Perry's State of Russia, vol. i. p. 300.

barges, each held in its place by two anchors. The mechanism of all these bridges is so simple, that they can be taken to pieces in less than two hours. This is done as soon as the floating ice at the beginning of the winter comes down: when the ice is fixed, they are again put up; and are taken down a second time at the breaking up of the ice in spring. But the ice, which continues firm, and capable of supporting any weight for five or six months, forms the principal communication in winter between the different quarters of the city. Several plans have been formed for the erection of a permanent bridge across the Neva, but the practicability of such a measure seems very doubtful. A wall, parapet, and pavement of hewn granite, stretch along the south bank of the Neva for three miles. This structure, which forms the quay, is one of the most striking and stupendous works by which this city of magnificent buildings is characterised. The southern portion of Petersburgh is divided, not by the river, but by canals, some of which have also been embanked in a similar manner.

The great triangle of edifices on the left side of the river is intersected by three principal canals; these form irregular semicircles, one within another. The Moika forms the smallest semicircle; the Katarina canal embraces this; and the Fontanka includes both. The Moika runs quite through the heart of the city, in the midst of the most frequented districts; this is a disadvantage and an eye-sore, as its bed is shallow, in some places nearly choked up with mud; and, being circuitous, the streets on each side of it are consequently narrow and inconvenient. There are several wooden bridges over it. Its sides were lined with timber till the reign of Alexander, who caused them to be formed of granite. This canal was formed

by the emperor's order. The Katarina canal, originally a swamp rivulet, was constructed by the empress whose name it bears: its sides are lined with granite, and along them is a convenient and handsome foot-pavement: it is connected with the Neva by the Nicolai canal. There are several bridges over it, some of which are draw-bridges. The Fontanka canal is by far the handsomest, and is, indeed, one of the greatest curiosities in St. Petersburgh; it was originally, like the others, a useless and unwholesome marsh-rivulet. It rises from the Neva, at the extremity of the summer-garden, and, after having traversed the whole city, terminates in the Gulf of Finland: it is 3,000 fathoms long, from 10 to 12 broad, and upwards of a fathom in depth. Both its banks are lined with granite; eight bridges of stone cross it. The fine walk along its banks, the excellence of its water, and the breadth of the streets which line it, have caused many princely mansions to be built adjoining it.

The situation of St. Petersburgh, on the Gulf of Finland and the banks of the Neva, is very favourable to commerce, and advantageous in other respects; but these advantages are in some measure counterbalanced by evils arising from that very situation. It is exposed to dreadful inundations, occasioned chiefly by a west or south-west wind, which, blowing directly from the gulf, prevents the exit of the Neva, and occasions vast accumulation of water. If the westerly wind continues for some time, the water rises ten feet above its level; at five feet, it overflows only the western part of the town, in those places where there is no embankment; but only the easternmost parts escape when the waters rise to ten feet. These floods, however, are in general less alarming and destructive than formerly, owing principally to the gradual

raising of the ground by buildings and other causes. The most ancient inundation, of which there is any record, was before the city was built, in 1691. The waters at that period seem to have risen usually every five years. On the 1st November, 1726, the waters rose eight feet two inches; on the 2d October, 1752, eight feet five inches. On September 10, 1777, there was a dreadful inundation, in consequence of a violent storm of wind from the west and south-west. In several streets, the torrent was four feet and a half deep, and so powerful, that it carried before it several buildings and bridges: the Vassili Ostroff and the Island of St. Petersburgh particularly suffered. It began at five in the morning; about seven, the wind shifting suddenly to the north-west, the flood fell as rapidly as it had arisen. For a short time, the river rose ten feet above its ordinary level.

In consequence of this inundation, precautionary measures have been taken to warn the inhabitants of the approaching evil: the height of the water is regularly marked. Whenever it rises above its banks at the mouth of the great Neva, notice is given by three distinct firings of cannon, repeated at intervals as the danger increases: five cannon are also fired at the Admiralty battery; and from its steeple, by day, four white flags are displayed, by night four lanterns, the bells of the churches tolling at the same time.

All these precautions, however, were inadequate to preserve the city from a most dreadful calamity in November 1824. "On the night of the 10th of that month, so strong a westerly wind impeded the current from the Ladoga Lake, that the Neva and the canals rose to an unusual height, and lamps were hung out around the Admiralty steeple to warn people not to sleep in their lowest apartments, — a signal which

custom has familiarised them to. Early on the next day, the waters had so risen, that the white flag was hung out, and guns were fired to admonish the city of its danger. It was soon too apparent that these admonitions were necessary; the Neva rose so as to inundate the whole city, and the confusion and destruction became indescribable. Vehicles of all descriptions, says a private letter, were now seen hurrying homewards, or to the bridges, or to some rising ground, with the water over the wheels; people were also seen wading through it up to their waists; in a short time, only a courier here and there appeared on horseback, their horses scarcely able to keep their heads above the water. At one o'clock on the 19th, nothing was to be seen on the Grand Place and in the streets, but wooden barks, empty boats, sentry-boxes, timber, furniture washed from the houses, bread, and various kinds of provisions, all floating in confused masses on the boisterous surface; wooden houses were seen floating up the river, most of the inhabitants of which had perished! Even the churchyards experienced an additional desolation. In the Smolensko quarter of the town, the coffins were washed out of their graves, and the dead bodies were cast up from their quiet habitations. Numbers had struggled up pillars, to the tops of the trees, and on the highest eminences, and were gradually saved from the fate of their companions by a few boats, which literally plied above the roofs of many of the houses! An eye-witness says, 'On Saturday the 20th, at daybreak, I went out to view the effects of this catastrophe. I found the quay of the Neva blocked up with timber, broken barges, galliots, and vessels of various descriptions, which had carried with them the pillars and lamp-posts of the houses, and had broken in the windows, and otherwise

damaged the edifices on the quay. The large blocks of granite of which the parapet is composed, were thrown over. The St. Isaac's, the Toochkoff, and summer-garden bridges, were broken away from their anchors, and dispersed and destroyed. Many of the streets were so choked up with their timber, as to be almost impassable. In the Vassili Ostroff quarter, where most of the houses are of wood, the destruction was immense; whole dwellings were hurled from their foundations, some of which were found at a considerable distance from the spot on which they stood, with the dead bodies of their unfortunate inhabitants within; others were broken into pieces on the spot, and some of them have been so totally destroyed that not a fragment of them remains.' Wooden barracks with many of their inmates were totally overwhelmed: an entire regiment of carabineers who had climbed up the roofs of one of them, all perished! Eight thousand dead bodies had been already found, and multitudes were carried by the retreating waters down the Gulf of Finland; many, also, were supposed to remain buried in the ruins of their habitations. Of course, many instances of individual affliction during the rapidity of the inundation must have occurred: the following seems to us particularly affecting. A lady and child in a carriage were in a dangerous situation, when a cossack riding by, observed her distress, and stopped; she entreated him at all hazards to save the child; he took it from the carriage window, but in a few minutes his horse slipped, and they both perished; soon afterwards, the lady, with her servants, horses, and baggage, were overwhelmed in the waters. When we state the loss of human beings as already ascertained to have amounted to upwards of 8,000, it may seem almost

unfeeling to think of estimating the destruction of property; but many of those who have escaped the flood are doomed, in the wreck of their all, to combat the more tedious mortality of famine. All the provisions in the city had been more or less damaged, and the frost had set in so severely, that any supply from sea was considered almost hopeless. The exchange had been fitted up to receive 4,000 persons; and such of the public buildings as escaped, were opened for the reception of the homeless. The number of these is beyond all present calculation. Our readers may, however, form some faint idea of it from the fact, that whole villages in the neighbourhood of the city had almost entirely disappeared: of Emilianowka, not a trace remained! The imperial establishments at Cronstadt suffered greatly, and the fleet sustained irreparable damage: a ship of one hundred guns was left in the middle of one of the principal streets! In the imperial iron manufactory at Catharinoff, 200 workmen perished; and out of eighteen barracks, no less than fifteen were washed away. Such are a few, and but a few, of the results of this dreadful calamity. Alexander was a helpless witness of the scene from his palace windows: what a lesson for human ambition! A few years before, an emperor as powerful and as seemingly secure, found the grave of his fortune in the ruins of the other capital. To do him justice, he seems to have been deeply afflicted at the spectacle; but indeed, what indifferent sojourner would not! A million of ruble have been subscribed from the imperial purse, and a committee appointed for their immediate distribution; the reigning family have personally visited and succoured the miserable survivors; and all th t human charity can do, under such a visitation, is in active progress. The loss of

commercial property has been immense: in sugar alone, it is said that 10,800,000lbs. were damaged, and nearly half the quantity completely melted."

On the banks of the Neva, the most grand and lively scenes that St. Petersburgh exhibits, are seen to the greatest advantage. In many places, this river equals in breadth the Thames at London; it is deep, rapid, clear, and its banks are lined with handsome buildings. On the north, the fortress, the academy of sciences, and the academy of arts, arrest the eye: on the opposite side, are seen the imperial palace, the admiralty, the houses of many of the nobles, and the English line, occupied chiefly by English merchants. The quay, stretching along the south side for three miles, except where it is interrupted by the admiralty, the wall, parapet, and pavement of hewn granite, which, for that space, form the embankment of the river, and the canals of Katarina and Fontanka, add greatly to the impressiveness of the scene, and to the beauty of the city.

St. Petersburgh by no means possesses physical advantages corresponding to those it enjoys of a political and commercial nature. The wish of its founder, Peter the Great, to approach as nearly as possible to the civilisation, the wealth, and the politics of Europe, induced him to overlook its low and swampy situation, and the inclemency of its climate, which is more severe than that of any other place in Europe under the same latitude. On an average of ten years, it is calculated, that there are annually 97 bright days, 104 rainy, 72 of snow, and 93 unsettled and changeable. The storms are frequent and violent. The greatest heat experienced during the latter sixty years of the eighteenth century, was 27°, and the greatest cold 33°, of Reaumur. Intense frost,

however, appears to be neither unhealthy nor very inconvenient; for, while it lasts, the air is extremely pure and bracing, and its severity is guarded against by warm clothing and double windows in the houses, with the joints and interstices calked. The spring is very short: the ice of the Neva never breaks up before the 25th of March, nor later than the 27th of April. The earliest time of its freezing, is the 20th of October; the latest, the 1st of December. It is not till May, however, that winter departs altogether; then the scene suddenly changes, and in a very few days after the disappearance of the snow and frost, the fields and the trees are green. The summer, in general, is as mild and agreeable as in the south of France, but much more variable, owing to the great abundance of rain and moisture; it is also very short. To it succeeds the most unpleasant season of the year, in no respect resembling the delightful autumns of most of the other countries of Europe. Dark, heavy clouds conceal the sun for several weeks; incessant rains render the streets almost impassable; and storms frequently occur.

The population of St. Petersburgh amounted, according to a survey made in 1817, to 285,000 souls: of these, it was computed that 55,000 were connected, directly or indirectly, with the land and sea service, and 25,000 were foreigners. The average numbers of inhabitants between 1764 and 1780, are supposed to have been 164,000; between 1775 and 1780, 174,778. In the year 1784, when a census was taken, the population was 192,846; and in the year 1789, 217,948. St. Petersburgh may, therefore, be regarded as holding the sixth rank in respect to population among the European capitals; being inferior to

London, Paris, Naples, Vienna, and Constantinople, and rather surpassing Dublin and Amsterdam. Of the inhabitants, it is calculated that six-sevenths are Russians. There are far more Germans than any other foreigners. Of the Fins and Ingrians, the original population of the district in which St. Petersburgh stands, there are not more than 4000, and these are either servants in the city, or live in what are called the Finnish villages in the vicinity.

The tranquillity of the city and the security of property are protected by a well-organised police, the officers of which are a grand master, two inspectors, eleven presidents of quarters, with various other functionaries of an inferior class. Sentinels are stationed in each street, at the distance of 150 yards from each other. The officers of police are empowered to discharge other duties beside those which strictly belong to their character: they decide differences between masters and servants; in the spring, it is their peculiar province to superintend the breaking up of the ice on the Neva; the various hospitals are likewise under their superintendance; and strangers are particularly under their cognizance. Every stranger, on his arrival, must deliver his passport at the principal police-office, and must, besides, publish his arrival three separate times in the public papers: a similar process is indispensably necessary on his departure.

St. Petersburgh, with respect to its civil constitution and character, may be said to consist of two distinct parts; as the residence of the court, and of those who are connected with it, and as the principal seat of trade and commerce in the empire. Every inhabitant who carries on trade must be a burgher, and have his name registered in the burghers' book;

he thus acquires an unlimited freedom of trade. All whose names are in the burghers' books, are either townsmen who have property within the city, or members of a guild. There are three guilds. Those belonging to the first, must possess from 10,000 to 50,000 rubles: these may follow foreign trades, are not liable to corporal punishment, and may drive about the city in a carriage drawn by two horses. Such as possess from 5000 to 10,000 rubles, belong to the second guild; they are confined to inland trade. A capital from 1000 to 5000 rubles is requisite for admission into the third guild; these are shop-keepers, keepers of public-houses, &c. The burghers are not obliged to serve in the army, but they must find a substitute. All whose capital exceeds 50,000 rubles, bankers of eminence, those who belong to the learned professions, &c., possess privileges nearly similar to those of the first guild: so do foreigners who enrol themselves in the city register, on account of their commercial affairs. Such are the classes of citizens who form the corporation. They meet once every third year, to choose officers, &c. At these assemblies, every member has a voice, and is eligible, unless under twenty-five years of age, and taxed at less than fifty rubles.

St. Petersburgh excels in no species of manufacture: indeed, many of the simplest articles, such as cotton, hardware, and pottery, are annually imported. The shop-keepers, and even many of the native merchants, seldom keep any account-books, but reckon by a kind of machine with several rows of wires, upon which beads are strung. A knowledge of reading, writing, and figures, is, however, gradually extending itself among them. The flourishing and extensive nature of the commerce of this city, forms a striking con-

trast to the poverty of its manufactures. Its foreign trade is almost entirely carried on by the English. When the city was first built, its trade was in the hands of the Dutch. In the year 1703, the first ship arrived from Holland. On an average of fourteen years, from 1775 to 1790, it was annually visited by 770 ships of various nations, chiefly English. At present, from 1000 to 1700 ships enter the Neva every year; of these, not above a twentieth part are Russian. The commerce of St. Petersburgh arises from its being the only great maritime outlet in the Gulf of Finland, and from its vast and various communications with the interior of the empire. The principal imports are, English manufactures and colonial produce; the wines, fruit, and oils of the south of Europe; the fine linens of Holland and Silesia; and the silks, watches, toys, &c. of France. The exports consist, chiefly, of the staple commodities of the empire, iron, hemp, potash, flax, tallow, sail-cloth, cordage, hogs' bristles, furs, tars, isinglass, &c.

Russia is celebrated for its internal navigation. Of this, the grandest branch is that which brings to St. Petersburgh the produce of the southern provinces, by means of the canals of Ladoga and Vyshnei Voloshok, which unite the Baltic and the Caspian: goods are thus conveyed to the capital through a tract of 1434 miles, without once landing them. This navigation begins at St. Petersburgh, by the Neva, which issues from Lake Ladoga. By a canal uniting the Volchof, which falls into the same lake, with the Tvertza, which falls into the Volga, the communication between the Baltic and the Caspian is effected. The canals of Ladoga and Vyshnei Voloshok likewise enable St. Petersburgh to receive the produce of China and Siberia, almost entirely by

inland navigation. The distance from St. Petersburgh to the frontiers of China, is from 1600 to 1700 leagues; and it requires three years to accomplish it, the rivers being navigable only during a short period of the year. The route to the Volga from the capital, has been already described. This river is descended as far as the Kama, which is ascended to the mouth of one of the streams that flow from the Uralian mountains. At the foot of these, the merchandise is unloaded and transported over land, to be embarked on one of the streams that flow from the eastern side of the mountains, and communicate with the Tobol. At Tobolsk, the Irtish is entered, by means of which, the Oby, some other streams, and a short portage, the Lake Baikal is reached; and, finally, the Selenga and Mongolia, which communicate with China. The communication between St. Petersburgh and Siberia is, of course, carried on by the same route. The chief articles for the Chinese market are furs: the returns are teas, silks, &c. From Siberia, St. Petersburgh receives large quantities of iron and hardware; in return for which she sends principally English goods and colonial produce. The trade of the interior would be much more extensive and flourishing than it actually is, were it not by law secured to the natives; but this restriction is beginning to be relaxed.

Such is the commercial state of St. Petersburgh. The capital is also the seat of the directing synod which is the head of the Greek Church. A patriarch, with great and undefined powers, was formerly at the head of the Russian clergy; this dignity was abolished by Peter I., in 1719, when he assumed the chief ecclesiastical authority in the sacred synod.

The Emperor, however, is, in fact, the head of the Church, for each member of the synod must take an oath, acknowledging him to be their supreme judge; he is, moreover, president of the synod. The vice-president is generally the metropolitan archbishop; there are, besides, a number of counsellors and assessors. The Russian clergy are either regular or secular. The higher clergy are all monks, who are not permitted to marry: no parish-priest, on the contrary, can be ordained before he is married. Mr. Coxe remarks, (and the remark is still applicable,) that persons of the sacred profession are seldom seen at the tables of the nobility or gentry. During the five years that he passed at St. Petersburgh, though in almost constant intercourse with them, he never saw at their table an ecclesiastic. "It must be allowed," he adds, "that the parish-priests are, for the most part, too low and ignorant to be qualified for admission into genteel society, while the dignitaries, being a separate order, and restrained by several strict regulations, reside chiefly in their palaces, within their monasteries." All the clergy wear long beards and long hair, falling over their shoulders, a square bonnet, and a long robe. There are thirty-three archbishoprics and bishoprics. Formerly, the monasteries possessed immense estates, but Catherine II. annexed them to the crown, and assigned 1000*l.* or 1200*l.* a-year to the bishops and archbishops. The parish-priests are very poor; a wooden house, a small portion of land, and from 10*l.* to 20*l.* constitute all that they receive.

St. Petersburgh is also the seat of Government, which, our readers do not require to be informed, is an unlimited monarchy. This was expressly declared by the Empress Catherine II., in her instructions

for the code-commissioners. One consequence of this absolute power is, that in Russia, as in the Oriental governments, there is scarcely any distinction of ranks among the nobility, except what is derived from the service of the sovereign. By a regulation of Catherine II., in 1785, the nobles are divided into six classes, which, however, form but one single corps: these are, the real nobles, who can trace their nobility back a century; the military nobility; the eight-class nobility, or those belonging to the first eight degrees of rank; foreigners, or those descended from noble foreign families; families honoured with titles, such as prince, count, baron; and the ancient noble races, whose nobility is undoubted, though its origin is covered with obscurity. The nobility of the empire is very numerous and daily increasing by descent, service, foreign diplomas, &c. Their principal privileges are, the possession of landed estates, the liberty to erect distilleries, and exemption from taxation; they can impose taxes, and inflict corporal punishment short of death on their vassals. The grand-chancellor is the first officer of state; next to him rank the ministers for foreign affairs, finances, war, the marine, the interior, public instruction, divine worship, and police. These, with thirty-five other members, constitute a supreme council, whose powers extend over all public offices. There are two senates, one at Petersburgh, the other at Moscow: the members are chosen by the emperor, whose voice alone they speak.

The nature of the soil in the vicinity of St. Petersburgh is so very poor and unproductive, that this circumstance, joined to the severity of the climate, must always render this capital dependent, for its supply of provisions of all descriptions, on distant

parts of the empire, to a greater degree than any other capital of Europe; the regular demand, however, here, as every where else, is found to create and secure a regular supply. The countries bordering on the Volga chiefly furnish wheat and rye. The poorer classes eat a species of rye-bread called black bread, made from the meal unbolted. The disorder which so frequently occurs in France from eating bread made of damaged rye, seems not to be known in Russia. Barley-meal is also used for bread. Of wheat, rye, and barley, upwards of 4,800,000 poods are annually consumed. In order to afford the poorer classes flour at a moderate price, Catherine II. erected a large flour-magazine, from which they are supplied in times of scarcity. St. Petersburgh is well supplied with water, from the Neva and the canals; but pipes for conducting it being unknown, it is brought to the houses in casks fixed on carts. It is calculated, that (except during the fast of the Greek Church) more meat is consumed in this city than in any other city of Europe. The supplies are brought from a great distance, principally from the Ukraine; but the largest and best-flavoured veal comes from the vicinity of Archangel. All kinds of meat, poultry, &c., are brought frozen in winter; and the quality, as well as the quantity and price, is regulated by the weather and the hardness or softness of the sledge roads. The market held upon the Neva, is thus described by Mr. Coxe. "At the conclusion of the long fast, which closes on the 14th of December (O.S.), the Russians lay in their provisions for the remaining part of the winter. For this purpose, an annual market, which lasts three days, is held upon the river, near the fortress. A long street, above a mile in length, was lined on each side with

an immense store of provisions, sufficient for the supply of this capital for the three following months. Many thousand raw carcases of oxen, sheep, hogs, pigs, together with geese, fowls, and every species of frozen food, were exposed to sale. The larger quadrupeds were grouped in various circles, upright, their hind legs fixed in the snow, with their heads and fore legs turned to each other: these towered above the rest, and occupied the hindermost row. Next to them succeeded a regular series of animals, descending gradually to the smallest, intermixed with poultry and game, hanging in festoons, and garnished with heaps of butter, fish, and eggs. I soon perceived, from the profusion of partridges, pheasants, moor-fowls, and cocks of the wood, that there were no laws in this country which prohibited the selling of game. I observed also the truth of what has been frequently asserted, that many of the birds, as well as several animals, in these northern regions, become white in winter, many hundred black cocks being changed to that colour; and some which had been taken before they had completed their metamorphosis, exhibited a mixture of black and white plumage. The most distant quarters contributed to supply this vast store of provisions; and the finest veal had been sent by land carriage as far as from Archangel, which is situated at the distance of 830 miles from St. Petersburgh; yet, every species of food is surprisingly cheap. In order to render this frozen food fit for dressing, it is first thawed in cold water. Frozen meat, however, certainly loses much of its flavour, and accordingly, the tables of persons of condition, and those of the English merchants, are supplied with fresh-killed meat."

The same writer gives a lively picture of a dinner

given by a nobleman in St. Petersburgh, which may be cited as exhibiting the various and distant sources from which the articles are drawn, and as a much fairer picture of the convivial manners of the nobility, than the more recent works of Drs. Clarke and Lyall present. After informing us that the Russian nobility of St. Petersburgh are, not less than those of Moscow, distinguished for their hospitality to foreigners, he proceeds:—"The tables are served with great profusion and taste. Though the Russians have adopted the delicacies of French cookery, yet, they neither affect to despise their native dishes, nor squeamishly reject the solid joints which characterise our repasts. The plainest, as well as the choicest viands were collected from the most distant quarters. I have frequently seen, at the same time, sterlet from the Volga, veal from Archangel, mutton from Astrakan, beef from the Ukraine, and pheasants from Hungary and Bohemia. Their common wines are chiefly claret, burgundy, and champaigne; and I never tasted English beer and porter in greater perfection and abundance. Before dinner, even in the houses of persons of the first distinction, a small table is spread in a corner of the drawing-room, covered with plates of caviare, dried and pickled herrings, smoked ham or tongue, bread, butter, and cheese, together with bottles of different liqueurs; and few of the company, of either sex, omitted a prelude of this kind to the main entertainment. This practice has induced many travellers to relate, that the Russians swallow bowls of brandy before dinner. What are the usages of the vulgar in this particular, I cannot determine; but, among the nobility, I never observed the least violation of the most extreme sobriety."

The most common food of the lower classes, besides the black rye-bread, consists of frozen and dried fish, chiefly a very small kind, not unlike the white bait so highly relished by the London epicures. Besides these and sterlet, St. Petersburgh is supplied with salted beluga and sturgeon; salmon from the Neva and from Riga; cray-fish from the Neva and the Volga; and the ordinary kinds of fish from the Ladoga Lake. Vegetables are abundant: of these, cucumbers are consumed in immense numbers. The Ukraine and the districts near the Volga and Okha, send fruit of various kinds; but apples are principally brought from Rostock and Stettin. *Kvass*, a fermented liquor, somewhat acidulous, made by pouring warm water on rye or barley meal, is the common drink of the lower orders: this is often improved by the juice of the cranberry. A liquor made from honey and pepper boiled in water, is sold about the streets, and much drunk by the lower classes: mead, beer, and brandy, or whiskey distilled from malt, are also favourite liquors with them.

The extreme severity and rigour of the winter creates necessarily a large and urgent demand for fuel; but no other kind is used than wood; and as the immediate vicinity does not afford a sufficient supply, about 150,000 fathoms, chiefly birch, are annually brought in from other parts of the country, principally by water. Besides this, the barges which come down the rivers and canals, never return, but are broken up and employed either to construct wooden houses, or as firing. Magazines for billets, similar to the flour-magazines, have been erected by Government for the accommodation of the poor in severe winters when fuel is scarce and dear.

The old national dress of Russia is still to be seen

among the lower orders in the capital. It consists of a long coat reaching to the calves of the legs, fitting close to the body, with a great number of tucks at the bottom of the waist, and lapping over the bosom like the English double-breasted coats. In a sash tied round the middle, the Russian puts his gloves, whip, axe, &c. He wears a vest of coloured, striped linen, instead of a shirt; his neck is bare; he wears wide trowsers, no stockings, but his legs are wrapped up in linen cloth, and thin boots: when he does wear shoes, they are made of the bark of the linden-tree, or leather. A deep hat with a narrow brim completes his dress. In winter, a cap takes the place of a hat, and a sheep-skin pelisse that of a coat. The women of this class are not so well protected against the cold as the men; but they do not often quit the house. Even those in humble circumstances wear a great number and variety of trinkets, gold chains, ear-rings, pearls, and rings. The accounts given by travellers respecting the cleanliness of the Russians, are very contradictory. The truth seems to be, as Storch remarks in his "Picture of Petersburgh," that "the Russian has no care about cleanliness; but fortunately, a few old national customs, which, from long habit, he cannot get rid of, keep him in a tolerably decent middle way. Thus, for example, in all the cottages, the tables are always scoured white, but the boor gives himself no concern about vermin, or rather spares them from hereditary respect. Though he washes his body twice, or perhaps thrice a week, yet, his linen, be it ever so foul, he takes off only in the bathing-room, where it is washed at the same time with himself."

Those travellers who represent the Russians as naturally a cleanly people, seem to have founded

their opinion chiefly on the number of baths in every part of the empire, and the regular and favourite use made of them by all classes of people. In St. Petersburgh, the bathing-houses are very numerous, and are among the places of resort for the lower orders: they are usually situated by the side of the river or canal. The following account of their vapour-baths was communicated to Mr. Coxe by an English gentleman at St. Petersburgh, who was ordered to bathe for his health. "The bathing-room was small and low, and contained a heap of large stones piled over a fire, and two broad benches, one near the ground, and the other near the ceiling. Small buckets of water being occasionally thrown upon the heated stones, filled the room with a hot and suffocating vapour, which, from its tendency to ascend, rendered the upper part much hotter than the lower. Having taken off my clothes, I laid myself down upon the highest bench, while the bathing woman was preparing tubs of hot and cold water, and continued to increase the vapour in the manner above mentioned. Having dipped a branch of twigs into the hot water, she repeatedly sprinkled, and then rubbed with it my whole body. In about half an hour, I removed to the lower bench, which I found much cooler, where the bathing woman lathered me from head to foot with soap, scrubbed me with flannel for the space of ten minutes; and throwing several buckets of warm water over me, till the soap was entirely washed off, she then dried me with napkins. As I put on my clothes in a room without a fire, I had an opportunity of remarking, that the cold air had little effect on my body, though in so heated a state; for, while I was dressing, I felt a glow of warmth, which continued during the whole night. This circumstance con-

vinced me, that, when the natives rush from the vapour-baths into the river, or even roll in the snow, their sensations are in no respect disagreeable, nor the effects in any degree unwholesome."

The Russians use the bath as a means of preserving cleanliness and health, as a luxury, and as an amusement. The other most characteristic and favourite amusements in St. Petersburgh, are, singing, dancing, swinging, and descending the ice-hills. All the Russians are fond of music, and they possess many airs of exquisite simplicity and pathos; not inferior in these respects to the old national airs of Scotland or Ireland, though peculiar, and with a very marked character. In every town and village, these popular ditties are sung by the lower classes; and the higher ranks in St. Petersburgh make it a customary recreation, to take with them in their water parties, a band of expert singers, and often have them at their tables at home, to sing the popular Russian ballads. The old popular ballads are also sometimes sung to the *Golubetz*, a favourite national dance. This, like all dances of rude people, is pantomimic: the modest solicitations of the lover, and the affected coyness of the fair one, are exhibited by a variety of gestures and movements. The swing is the amusement of all ranks and conditions, and Easter witnesses it in its greatest perfection, swings being then set up in all the public squares. Another kind of holyday diversion is the ice-hills. A scaffold about thirty feet high, is erected on the Neva: on one side of it are steps, or a ladder, to ascend to the platform on the top; on the opposite side, a steep inclined plane, about four yards broad and thirty long, descends to the river; this is supported by strong poles, and its sides are protected by a parapet of planks. Large square blocks of ice,

about four inches thick, are laid upon the inclined plane, close to one another, and smoothed with the axe; they are then consolidated by water thrown over them. The snow is cleared away at the bottom of the plane for the length of two hundred yards and the breadth of four; and the sides of this course, as well as those of the scaffoldings, are ornamented and protected with firs and pines. Each person, provided with a little, low sledge, something like a butcher's tray, mounts the ladder, and glides with inconceivable rapidity down the inclined plane, poising his sledge as he goes down. The momentum thus acquired, carries him to a second hill, at the foot of which he alights, mounts again, and in the same manner glides down the other inclined plane of ice. The boys also amuse themselves in skating down these hills. Summer-hills, constructed in imitation of the ice-hills, also afford a favourite amusement to the inhabitants of St. Petersburgh, especially during their carnivals. These consist of a scaffold between thirty and forty feet high, with an inclined plane in front, flowers and boughs of trees sheltering the person in his descent: a small, narrow cart on four wheels is used instead of the sledge; below, there is a level stage of some hundred feet in length, along which he is carried by the impulse of his descent.* The winter is the season when the most characteristic amusements of the Russians may be witnessed, especially on the Neva. "Scarcely a day passed," says Mr. Coxe, "that I did not take my morning walk, or drive in a sledge on that river. Many carriages and sledges and numberless foot-passengers perpetually crossing it, afford a constant suc-

* This amusement has been introduced at Paris, under the name of the Russian mountains.

cession of moving objects; and the ice is also covered with different groupes of people, dispersed or gathered together, and variously employed as their fancy leads them. In one part, there are several long areas railed off for the purpose of skating; a little further is an enclosure, wherein a nobleman is training his horses, and teaching them the various evolutions of the ménage. In another part, the crowd are spectators of what is called a sledge-race. The course is an oblong space about the length of a mile, and sufficiently broad to turn the carriage. It can hardly be denominated a race, for there is only a single sledge, drawn by two horses; and the whole art of the driver consists in making the shaft-horse trot as fast as he can, while the other is pushed into a gallop."

Whenever a concourse of the lower orders is expected, the police are always at hand, prepared with a fire-engine. This seems a curious implement by which to keep a mob in order; but it is found by experience, that all the symptoms of an approaching quarrel or disturbance are immediately and effectually subdued by a shower from the fire-engine. If any petty offence has actually been committed, the culprit is generally whipped. There are three instruments for whipping in use in Russia; two which resemble a cat-o'-nine tails, and the knout. The latter, besides being applied to petty offenders, is the first and preparatory punishment of felons. "One morning," says Mr. Coxe, "as I was casually strolling through the streets of St. Petersburgh, near the market-place, I observed a large crowd of people flocking to one particular spot. Upon inquiring of my Russian servant the cause of this concourse, he informed me, that the multitude was assembled in order to see a felon, who had been convicted of murder, receive the knout. Although I

naturally shuddered at the very idea of being a spectator of the agonies of a fellow-creature, yet my curiosity overcame my feelings. With the assistance of my servant I penetrated through the crowd, and ascended the roof of a wooden house of one story, from whence I had a distinct view of the dreadful operation, which was already begun. The executioner held in his hand the knout. This instrument is a thong about the thickness of a crown piece, and about three-fourths of an inch broad, and rendered extremely hard by a peculiar kind of preparation: it is tied to a thick plaited whip, which is connected by means of an iron ring with a small piece of leather, that acts like a spring, and is fastened to a short wooden handle. The executioner, before every stroke, receded a few paces, and at the same time drew back the hand which held the knout; then, bounding forward, he applied the flat end of the thong with considerable force to the naked back of the criminal, in a perpendicular line, reaching six or seven inches from the collar towards the waist. He began by hitting the right shoulder, and continued his strokes parallel to each other quite to the left shoulder; nor ceased till he had inflicted 333 lashes, the number prescribed by the sentence. At the conclusion of this terrible operation, the nostrils of the criminal were torn with pincers,* his face marked with a hot iron, and he was reconducted to prison, in order to be transported to the mines of Nershinsk in Siberia." Mr. Coxe adds, that he has been thus particular in describing the punishment of the knout, because several authors have exaggerated it; but surely, it is scarcely possible to present a more frightful picture of its nature and

* This horrible part of the punishment has been abolished by an ukase dated Jan. 27, 1818.

effects than what he has himself given; especially when, in addition to the account in the text, we advert to a note on this passage, in which he informs us, that a skilful executioner, on receiving a private order, can despatch the criminal by striking two or three blows upon the ribs.

The amusements of the middle and lower classes are always much more characteristic of national feelings and manners than those of the higher orders. On this account, we have dwelt at greater length on the public amusements of the great mass of the population in St. Petersburgh. Those of the higher classes consist in convivial clubs, of which there are a great number and variety; in frequenting the public walks and the gardens of the imperial palaces; in driving in sledges; and in attending the theatre. One of the most expensive necessaries for all who are not proprietors of estates, is attendance. In no capital of Europe is so great a number of domestic servants kept: in houses of quality, where they are all vassals, their numbers frequently exceed all belief. "The very same menial employments," Storch informs us, "for which in Germany one maid would be sufficient, in St. Petersburgh require at least three persons to perform. For almost every particular function, a peculiar servant must be kept." Only nobles, officers in the army, and persons holding places under Government with the rank of a staff-officer, can possess vassals, or have a right to buy them. When Storch published his "Picture of Petersburgh," about thirty years ago, the average price of a young fellow was 300, and that of a girl 100 rubles.

It has already been stated, that the Germans are much more numerous in St. Petersburgh, than any other foreigners: to them, the capital, as well as the

rest of the empire, was, till very lately, almost exclusively indebted for its progress in literature and science. The most valuable and extensive information on the geography, statistics, and natural history of almost every portion of this vast empire, was collected by the personal labour of Pallas and his associates, who were patronised by Catherine II.; and to the German men of science, the institutions in the metropolis owe the high character they have obtained throughout Europe by their proceedings and publications. The Academy of Sciences, which boasts of the names of the Bernouilles and Eüler among its supporters, contains many objects which naturally draw the attention of all men of science who visit St. Petersburgh. In the library, there are some curious and important Slavonic MSS. of the twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, and subsequent centuries. Of these, the most valuable are, the Chronicle of Nestor, the father of Russian history; the first book printed in Russia, A.D. 1564;* and a larger quantity of Chinese books than is to be found in any other library in Europe.

The various branches of natural history are very rich, especially in native productions. Among these [illegible], the *equus hemionus*, a kind of wild horse resembling a mule, found in Dauria and in the vast deserts of Tartary to the south of Russia; the wild ram, from the deserts south of Lake Baikal; and the grunting ox of Pennant, the full and flowing tail of which, of a glossy and silky texture, is used as a fly-flap, to decorate the caps of the Chinese, and is the celebrated ornament of the Turkish standards: this animal inhabits Turkey and Tibet. The number and variety of fossil bones of the elephant, rhinoceros, buffalo, and

* A Slavonic Psalter, however, has been discovered, printed at Kiev in 1551.

mammoth, is very great. But, perhaps, the most interesting article in the natural history department, is the mass of native iron, weighing 1656 lbs., which was discovered by Pallas in Siberia. There is also a very good collection of minerals, as well as a valuable anatomical cabinet, which was prepared originally by a celebrated anatomist of the Hague. The chief attraction, however, of the rooms of the Academy, is, the collection of the costumes of the nations inhabiting the more eastern districts of this vast empire, and of their antiquities. Among the former are specimens of the dress of the prophetic pagan priestesses called *chamans*, consisting of a cap and horn of iron, and a mantle strung with rings, together with a large, deep-toned drum, from which, when the priestess falls into her trance of ecstacy, the most horrible combination of noises is produced. There are also dresses of the barbarous inhabitants of the Aleoutine Islands, and some Japanese habits and armour made of varnished leather and blue cloth. The ornaments that were found in the tombs of Siberia, some of which are of massive gold and of very elegant workmanship, are very numerous: these consist of bracelets, collars, vases, crowns, figures of animals richly carved in gold and silver, sabres with golden hilts, ornamented with precious stones, Tâtar idols, &c. The collection of Russian coins is valuable as throwing great light on the early part of the history of the country: for this purpose, they are ranged in nine chronological classes. The cabinet is also rich in earlier coins. Among the Indian pieces, are the twelve rupees, representing the twelve signs of the zodiac, coined by order of Queen Nourmahal, whose history, as related in the Travels of Tavernier, has more the air of

an Eastern tale than of a veritable narrative.* These rupees are so extremely rare, that the original possessor of the cabinet is said to have given for them 1,000 crowns. In a detached building is placed a celestial sphere, eleven feet in diameter, the inside of which represents the visible surface of the heavens; and being turned by a curious piece of mechanism, it exhibits the motions of the celestial bodies in the meridian of St. Petersburgh. The original sphere, which was made at Gottorp, was burnt. The carriage of it to St. Petersburgh was attended with great expense and labour. To Riga, it was conducted over

* Queen Nour-mahal (*i. e.* the light of the seraglio) was the sultana of one of the Mohammedan sovereigns of India, named Sultan Selim, otherwise called Jehanghir Pasha, the father of Shah Jehan, and grandfather of Aurungzeb. "This queen being altogether ambitious, made it her business to please the king, that she might the more easily accomplish her designs; and having a great desire to eternise her memory, she could not think of a better way than to coin a good quantity of money in her name, and of a different stamp from that which the Indian kings were wont to coin. ....One day that the king was extremely well pleased, and, having drunk briskly, began to be merry, after that the queen had danced in his presence, he took her, and set her by him, protesting that he loved her above all the princesses in his court." On this, we are told, the queen, who had watched her opportunity, requested that the king would grant her one favour, which she had passionately desired a long time, that she might reign as sovereign for twenty-four hours. This bold request surprised the monarch; but at length, unwilling to deny her any thing, he consented to retire for that time on a given day; of which the queen availed herself, having got every thing in readiness, to have coined and issued an immense quantity of gold and silver rupees, bearing the signs of the zodiac on one side, and the name of Jehanghir, together with her own, and the name of the place where they were coined, in Arabic letters, on the other. Shah Jehan, however, the succeeding monarch, called in these rupees, and had them melted down, forbidding their circulation on pain of death.—TAVERNIER, part ii. p. 10.

the snow on rollers and sledges, the forests in many places having been cleared: from Riga, it was sent to the capital by sea. The present sphere was constructed on the iron carcase of the original one.

There are two seminaries for the education of the nobility; one for males, called *Corps de Cadets;* and the other for females, called the *Couvent des Demoiselles Nobles*. The latter presents a most interesting sight, especially at the public examinations which are held every three years. There are two separate establishments in this convent; one for the education of 260 girls, daughters of the *bourgeois*, and the other for the daughters of the nobility. In the course of nine years, to which the period of education extends, they are taught French, German, and Russian, the history of their native country, music, singing, dancing, writing, arithmetic, and geometry. There are many other institutions of the same kind in St. Petersburgh;—a deaf and dumb asylum, an asylum for orphans and widows, and a school where girls and boys are educated for the theatre.

The hospitals are numerous and, in general, well planned and regulated. Besides two large ones for the army and navy, there is a public hospital, in which the most laudable attention is paid to the cleanliness and comfort of the patients: the bedsteads are of iron; the apartments well ventilated; and each of these is under the care of widows from the military asylum. The Foundling Hospital, though inferior to that of Moscow, is very large and well managed. When Mr. James visited it in 1813, the number of children on the list was about 6,000, of whom 600 were kept in the house. Connected with this is a lying-in house. The Lombard Bank is an establishment also connected with the Foundling Hospital: it is similar, in its design

and arrangement, to the *Mont de Piété* at Paris. The Loan Bank, for the nobility and the corporation, is, however, of a more uncommon character and design: it was instituted by Catherine II., and lends on real estates, which in Russia are estimated by the number of peasants. Of course, by the census and the price of slaves, the value of an estate can readily and effectually be ascertained. The loan is for twenty years, at five per cent interest, and three per cent is paid as a sinking fund; no sum under 1000 rubles is lent. With the bank is connected a deposite-fund.

The prisons have recently undergone important improvements, and are now under the philanthropic inspection of a prison society, which enjoys the imperial sanction. The late Walter Venning, Esq., whose memory will long be revered throughout the Russian empire, was the instrument of originating this admirable institution. An early member of the committee of the London Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline, on his arrival in St. Petersburgh, in 1817, he immediately devoted himself with indefatigable zeal to the same benevolent object. "With the highest permission, he examined the prisons, houses of correction, and poor-houses, in St. Petersburgh, Tver, and Moscow. Many reforms and improvements were made, according to his suggestion, and a particular attention was thereby excited towards this department." * He presented a memorial to the Emperor Alexander, forcibly pointing out the great national advantages which would result from the improvement of prison discipline; in consequence of which, his imperial majesty was pleased

* Address of his Excellency Prince Galitzin, at the annual meeting of the St. Petersburgh Prison Society, January 27, 1821 See Third Report of the London Committee (1821), p. 175.

to give his sanction, in July 1819, to the formation of a *Tutel* Society for the prisons of the capital, at the head of which, as of every patriotic and benevolent undertaking, stands the name of the excellent Prince Galitzin. The example of Mrs. Fry in this country, has led also to the formation of a Ladies' Committee; and five prisons (viz. the city prison, the government-hall, the police prison, the house of correction, and the work-house,) are placed under their care.* In the following year, an Auxiliary Prison Society was established at Cronstadt, likewise under imperial patronage, in consequence of Mr. Venning's exertions. Towards the close of January 1821, an attack of typhus fever, caught from a prisoner, terminated the earthly career of this admirable man. A simple monument has been erected over his remains, bearing an appropriate inscription in Russ and English; † and thus, in the words of Prince Galitzin, "while Russia has to shew, near one frontier, the ashes of his countryman," who, about thirty years before, fell a victim to his philanthropy at another extremity of that vast empire, "she here presents, in the capital,

* In one letter, Mr. Venning says: "The Princess Mestchersky leaves the Taurida palace every day, to read a portion of the Scriptures to the female prisoners, and to see that they are all employed."—Third Report, &c. p. 168.

† On the principal side, a bas-relief represents Mr. Venning entering a prison, with a Bible in his hand; under it, in Russ and English, are inscribed, "I was sick, and ye visited me: I was in prison, and ye came unto me."—"I heard a voice from Heaven, saying unto me, Write, blessed are the dead who die in the Lord," &c. On the reverse side, in Russ only, is the following inscription:—"The Society of St. Petersburgh for the Improvement of Prisons have raised this monument to the memory of their beloved fellow-labourer, Walter Venning, countryman of Howard, and founder of the Prison Institutions of this country. He was born in November 1781, and died in the Lord Jesus Christ, on the 16th of January, 1821."

the monument of a second Howard." Since Mr. Venning's death, the exertions of the Prison Society of St. Petersburgh have been continued with zeal and activity; and auxiliary societies have been formed, under the auspices of the Government, at Archangel, Vologda, and Orel. "Religious services are now established, with the means of instruction; food and clothing are provided, with medical attendance for the sick; and cleanliness is especially regarded. A new gaol is in progress in the capital, from which it is expected much benefit will result, by the increased attention which has been paid to classification and inspection in its internal arrangements." *

Among the public institutions of St. Petersburgh, the Russian Bible Society also claims distinct notice. This institution was formed, agreeably to an imperial ukase, on the 23d of January, 1813, in the house of Prince Galitzin, then Minister of Religion for the empire. During the twelve years that the society has existed, the committee have completed large editions of the whole Bible in ancient Greek and

* Sixth Report of the Society for the Improvement of Prison Discipline, p. 81. From a document in the Appendix to this valuable Report, it appears, that the number of prisoners committed to the town prison in the year 1823, was 1657, of whom 402 were debtors; the number released in that year was 1628; remaining in prison, 411. Of 441 debtors, 294 were released through the medium of the prison society. The average number of sick had decreased one-half within three years. The exertions of this society had been conspicuous in relieving the distresses of convicts on their journey to Siberia. In the Fifth Report of the London Society (1823), it is stated, that, in the preceding year, 7000 convicts had passed through the city of Orel, on the frontiers of Siberia, who had partaken, more or less, of the bounty of the St. Petersburgh Society, in clothing, food, and medical attendance. The Archbishop of Orel had distinguished himself by the earnestness of his endeavours to alleviate the wretchedness of the prisoners.

German, and, for the first time, of the New Testament and the Book of Psalms in the vernacular language of Russia. The four Gospels and the Book of Acts have also been printed in the Mongolian and Calmuc dialects; the whole New Testament has been translated, under the sanction of the ecclesiastical authorities of Bessarabia, into Bulgarian; and an edition of the Gospel of St. Matthew has been undertaken in the Zirian language, a dialect spoken in the Governments of Tobolsk, Perm, and Vologda.

The most solemn and magnificent ceremonies of the Greek church may be witnessed at St. Petersburgh, with every preparatory and attendant circumstance that can add to their effect. Fasting is so prominent and essential a doctrine of this church, as to have given rise to the satirical remark, *Que les Russes ne savent prendre le ciel que par famine.* At Lent, they fast seven weeks; the same period from the first week after the Pentecost to St. John the Baptist; then again, fourteen days before the Assumption; and forty days before Christmas. At Easter, a ceremony is performed, peculiar to this church, which is certainly not surpassed by the most striking and imposing spectacle ever invented. A representation of the sacred tomb is exposed to the people during the evening; and at night, the resurrection is announced in all the churches throughout the empire. Mr. James, who witnessed this extraordinary spectacle in 1814, gives the following account of it: "We entered the Casan church at a late hour. The nave, the aisles, in short, every part was crowded to suffocation with a host of devotees: thousands of lighted tapers (for each bore one in his hand) glittered over the whole area, spreading an illumination as bright as noon. As the hour of twelve approached, all eyes were earnestly bent on

the sanctuary, and a dead silence reigned throughout. At length, the door opened, when there issued forth a long train of banners, crosses, &c., with archimandrites, protopopes, and priests of all ranks, dressed in their sumptuous robes of embroidered silk, and covered with gold and silver, and jewels: they moved slowly through the crowd, and went out from the doors of the church, as if to search for the body of our Lord. In a few minutes, the insignia were again seen on their return, floating above the heads of the mob, along the nave; and when the archbishop had regained the altar, he pronounced with a loud voice, *Christos volseress*, Christ is risen. At that instant, the hymn of praise commenced, and a peal of ordnance from the fortress re-echoed the joyful tidings through the city. The mob now saluted and congratulated one another in turn, for the days of fasting were at an end: tables spread with provisions in a short time made their appearance in the church; the forbidden meats were tasted with eager appetite; and a feast of gluttony, that annually proves fatal to some of the followers of this religion, took place of penance and prayer." *

The same Traveller notices another religious ceremony which he witnessed at St. Petersburgh. "In the fervency of that ostentatious gratitude that characterises the Russian Church, the verdure, when it first appears in spring, annually receives a solemn benediction. The places of worship, as well as private houses, are filled with the consecrated boughs borne by the devotees; and, on the first Sunday after Ascension-day, the same priests who poured their blessing on the frozen water in the winter, hail with similar ceremonies the summer

* Tour through Germany, &c. vol. ii. p. 82.

vegetation." A procession takes place on this day, as well as on the first of May, (which is kept as a *fête* throughout the North,) to Ekatherinoff. Hither, the court, all the gay world, and all who can hire a carriage of any description, repair to hail the first burst of the genial season: sometimes, above 2,000 carriages make their appearance in the procession.

Mr. Coxe was present at the celebration of the singular rite above referred to,—the blessing of the waters, which used to be performed upon the Neva with great pomp and solemnity, the sovereign attending in person upon the ice, and all the regiments of guards being drawn out on the occasion. Its pomp, though still splendid, is now much diminished. "Upon the frozen surface of a small canal, between the admiralty and the palace, was erected an octagon pavilion of wood, painted green; and ornamented with boughs of fir: it was open at the sides, and crowned with a dome supported by eight pillars. On the top was the figure of St. John with the cross, and four paintings representing some of the miracles of our Saviour: in the inside, a carved image of the Holy Spirit, under the emblem of a dove, was suspended, as is usual in the sanctuaries of the Greek churches. The floor of this edifice was carpeted, excepting a square vacancy in the middle, in which an opening was cut in the ice, and a ladder let down into the water. The pavilion was enclosed by palisadoes, adorned with boughs of fir, and the intermediate space was also covered with carpets. From one of the windows of the palace a scaffolding was erected, ornamented with red cloth, which reached to the extremity of the canal. At the time appointed, the empress appeared at the window of the palace; and the archbishop, who [illegible] to perform the benediction, passed at the head [illegible] numerous

procession along the scaffolding into the octagon, round which were drawn up a few soldiers of each regiment quartered at St. Petersburgh. After having pronounced a few prayers, he descended the ladder, plunged the cross into the water, and then sprinkled the colours of each regiment. At the conclusion of this ceremony, the archbishop retired; and the people rushed in crowds into the octagon, drank with eagerness the water, sprinkled it upon their clothes, and carried some of it away for the purpose of purifying their houses. I was informed," adds Mr. Coxe, "that some of the populace plunged into the water, and that others dipped their children into it; but, as I was not myself witness to these circumstances, I cannot vouch for their truth."

Among the magnificent wonders of this splendid capital, the annals of the reign of Catherine II. make mention of one ephemeral palace, which, like that of Pandæmonium,

> "—— Out of the earth, a fabric huge,
> Rose like an exhalation;"

and like an exhalation vanished, not leaving a wreck behind. From a true and particular account of this ice palace, drawn up by Kraft, an imperial academician, and published at St. Petersburgh the year after its erection, it appears, that seven years before, an ice castle had been built upon the river Neva; but the ice bent under the weight of the edifice and of the soldiers who garrisoned it. To avoid a similar defect in the foundation, it was resolved, on the occasion of the marriage of Prince Galitzin, in 1740, to erect a palace of ice on *terra firma*; and a site was chosen between the imperial winter palace and the admiralty, one of the lords of the bed-chamber being appointed to

superintend the works. The palace was constructed of blocks of ice, from two to three feet thick, cut out of the winter covering of the Neva; these being properly adjusted, water was poured between them, which acted as a cement, consolidating the whole into one immense mass of ice. The length of the edifice was fifty-six feet, its breadth seventeen and a half, and its height twenty-one. "It was constructed according to the strictest rules of art; and was adorned with a portico, columns, and statues. It consisted of a single story, the front of which was provided with a door and fourteen windows; the frames of the latter, as well as the panes, being all formed of ice. The sides of the doors and of the windows were painted in imitation of green marble. On each side of the door was a dolphin, from the mouths of which, by means of naphtha, volumes of flames were emitted in the evening. Next to them were two mortars, equal to eighty-pounders, from which many bombs were thrown, a quarter of a pound of powder being used for each charge. On each side of the mortars stood three cannons, equal to three-pounders, mounted upon carriages, and with wheels, which were often used. In the presence of a number of persons attached to the court, a bullet was driven through a board two inches thick, at the distance of sixty paces, by one of these cannon, a quarter of a pound of powder being also used for a charge. The interior of the edifice had no ceiling, and consisted of a lobby and two large apartments, one on each side, which were well furnished, and painted in the most elegant manner, though formed merely of ice. Tables, chairs, statues, looking-glasses, candlesticks, watches, and other ornaments, besides tea-dishes, tumblers, wine-glasses, and even plates with pro-

visions, were seen in one apartment, also formed of ice, and painted of their natural colours; while in the other were to be seen a state bed, with curtains, bed, pillows, and bed-clothes, two pairs of slippers, and two night-caps of the same cold material. Behind the cannon, the mortars, and the dolphins, stretched a low balustrade. On each side of the building was a small entrance. Here were pots with flowers and orange-trees, partly formed of ice, and partly natural, on which birds sat. Beyond these were erected two icy pyramids. On the right of one of them stood an elephant, which was hollow, and so contrived as to throw out burning naphtha; while a person within it, by means of a tube, imitated the natural cries of the animal. On the left of the other pyramid was seen the never-failing concomitant of all princely dwellings in Russia, a *banya*, or bath, apparently formed of balks, which is said to have been sometimes heated, and even to have been appropriated to use.

"The appearance of the ice palace, it is said, was remarkably splendid when lighted up in the evening with numerous candles. Amusing transparencies were usually suspended in the windows, to increase the effect; and the emission of flames by the dolphins and the elephant, all tended to excite greater surprise while the people beheld the crystalline mass."

Thus, there wanted not, to carry on the parallel between this palace and the magical edifice which Milton describes,

"—— many a row
Of starry lamps and blazing cressets, fed
With naphtha and asphaltus, yielding light
As from a sky. The hasty multitude
Admiring entered; and the work some praise,
And some the architect."

Crowds of visiters were continually seen around this fantastic and unique construction, which remained entire from the beginning of January almost to the middle of March. The glassy fabric then began to melt, and was soon afterwards broken into pieces, and the ruins were conveyed to the imperial ice-cellar.* On the wisdom displayed in the construction of this costly emblem of mundane glory, the reader may make his own comment.

Neither the design nor the limits of our work will allow of giving a detailed description of the various palaces and public buildings of St. Petersburgh. Both Sir John Carr and Sir Robert Ker Porter speak in rapturous terms of the enormous hall and winter garden of the Taurida palace. The former remarks, that an ancient pagan might here fancy himself transported into the banqueting-room of Jupiter. The latter describes it in the following terms. "Before you enter the hall or gallery of the palace, you pass through a saloon of great magnitude, which is supported by immense white pillars, and ornamented with ancient candelabrums, sarcophaguses, busts, vases, and other decorations of the classic ages. With these are mingled, in monstrous association, modern, ill-fashioned Cupids, negroes, fantastic heads, and hideous pedestals of fifty-coloured marbles. On leaving this enormous vestibule, the hall opens at once upon the eye, and excites an emotion which must be felt, to be imagined. I had not an opportunity of measuring this apparently measureless place, and therefore will not pretend to guess its dimen-

* Kraft's work contains two views of the interior, as well as one of the front of the palace. A copy of the latter is given by Dr. Lyall, in his Travels in Russia (vol. ii. p. 390), from which we have taken this account.

sions.* A double range of Ionic columns rise like a forest on either side, and when you look up to their capitals, the height is so great as almost to pain the eye. But there the sublimity of this gigantic chamber ceases. A poverty-stricken, flat ceiling, with little insignificant urns in a squeezed shape, finish most abruptly what might otherwise have been perfection. Had it been arched, the effect would have been unequalled in Europe. Between the pillars are placed statues, most of them modern and of indifferent merit. Some fine imitations of the Barberini and other celebrated vases, are mixed with them; and at each end of the gallery, at some distance from the wall, are excellent copies of the Laocoon and the Cleopatra. Through the long avenue of columns, opens to view a most delightful scene,—a spot dedicated to perpetual summer." The garden is described as very extensive; but the effect of extent is greatly aided by the winding and undulating walks, which are gravelled or neatly turfed, and lined with roses and other flowers, leading amid flowery hedges and fruit-trees, chiefly orange-trees of an enormous size, planted in tubs sunk into the earth, and concealed by fine mould. As the roof, from the size of the garden, could not be supported without pillars, these are disguised under the form of palm-trees.† The heat is maintained by concealed flues in the walls and pillars, and under the earth are conveyed

* Storch describes it in general terms, as "upwards of one hundred paces in length, and proportionably broad," but does not give us any idea of its height. Sir John Carr has given a sketch of the hall, which, Sir Robert says, gives a just idea of its appearance, and in which the columns are represented as between 80 and 90 feet high.

† So Storch says; but they do not appear in Sir John Carr's drawing.

leaden pipes filled with boiling water. The whole of the pavilion is lighted by lofty windows; and from the ceiling are suspended several magnificent lustres of the richest cut-glass. "Here," says Sir John, in his flowery style, "while the polar winter is raging without, covering the world with white, and hardening the earth to marble, when water tossed in the air drops down in ice, may be seen the foliage and inhaled the fragrance of an Arabian grove, in the soft and benign climate of an Italian spring. The novelty and voluptuous luxuriance of this green, refreshing spectacle, seen through the colonnade of massy white pillars, and reduplicated by vast mirrors, is matchless." *

In this palace, Prince Potemkin, soon after his return from the conquest of the Crimea, gave the most gorgeous and costly entertainment to his imperial mistress ever recorded since the days of Roman luxury,—and it was his last: he died shortly after. In this colossal hall, the walls of which were splendidly illuminated, were spread tables groaning with the delicacies of every region, and the most costly wines. A prodigious cistern of solid silver, containing sterlet soup, is said alone to have cost 10,000 rubles. The orchestra exceeded 600 vocal and instrumental performers; and the banquet was succeeded by a series of magnificent exhibitions, scenic and theatric, which lasted till midnight. In the centre of the pavilion, on a lofty pedestal, this splendid barbarian had

* Mr. James mentions also the hanging-gardens of the *Palais d'Hiver*, and those of Prince Gazarin, as true specimens of Russian luxury. These are "parterres open to the sky above, and warmed below by heated flues: they are generally raised on terraces to the level of the first or second story of the house, whither having mounted, the stranger, to his great surprise, finds himself ushered into shady walks, and trees, and groves."

caused to be erected a statue of his benefactress, cut in Carrara marble. This statue was turned out of the palace by her unhappy son. Instigated, probably, by the hatred he bore to the memory of Potemkin, Paul, in one of his "darkened hours," converted this palace into barracks, and the hall, pavilion, and saloon, into a riding-school for his troops!

We must now take leave of what Mr. James has perhaps justly pronounced "the fairest city of the world,"—in which the elegant symmetries of Grecian and Roman art are seen united with the gorgeous pride of the East. To him, its first appearance was peculiarly striking, as he approached it after travelling a wild, uncultivated country, in his way from Finland; but its effect, he says, "would be stupendous even without the aid of this contrast: it is a city of new-built palaces." The marble palace, the imperial winter residence, the admiralty (presenting the longest regular *façade* of any building in Europe, being more than a quarter of a mile in extent, with six porticoes), the Isaac place, one of the finest squares in Europe, with the equestrian statue of Peter the Great, the academy, the fortress, the gilded domes and spires of the various churches, and a thousand other sumptuous edifices, are seen rising on either side over the quays of granite, and lining the long perspective till it is almost lost in the distance. In the midst, the white surface of the Neva is seen spotted with a thousand moving figures. The infinite variety and gay costume of the Russian population,—the novel aspect of stout, majestic men, with solemn beards and placid countenances, who may be seen sliding down hills in go-carts, or whirled after one another in a round-about, or engaged in some religious procession, new even to those familiar with the pageants

of Roman Catholic countries, together with the strange physiognomy and various dress of individuals of the Asiatic tribes subject to Russia, who frequently visit the metropolis,—all concur to heighten the impression of wonder made on a stranger by the first view of this gorgeous capital, and prepare him to find in the inhabitants a people little assimilated to the rest of Europe. We reserve, however, a survey of the national manners and social character of the Russians for another place: to study them to advantage, the traveller must visit Moscow.

Within the distance of thirty miles from St. Petersburgh, there are several palaces belonging to the emperor; but they are merely large country-seats, with gardens in the English style, and present nothing particularly worthy of notice. The road from the capital to the palace of Peterhof, is situated at a small distance from the Gulf of Finland, and is almost entirely lined with the country seats of the nobility. Near that place is a curious *fabrique* for polishing precious stones, the machinery of which is moved by water: the stones are chiefly jasper and porphyry, brought from Siberia. The palace of Oranienbaum, which also is situated near the shore of the Gulf of Finland, about twenty-seven miles from St. Petersburgh, is worthy of notice as having been erected by Prince Mentchikof, the favourite of Peter the Great, while he was at the height of that power to which few favourites, even in Russia, or under the Asiatic despotisms, have ever attained. Schlussenburgh, about forty miles from the capital, is a fortress celebrated in Russian history for the number and rank of the state prisoners that have been confined in it. The road runs the whole way by the side of the Neva, the

banks of which are steep and high, and are studded with many villages and country-houses.

The place most worth visiting, however, in the vicinity of St. Petersburgh, is Cronstadt, a naval station, about ten leagues from the capital, in the island of Retuzari, in the Gulf of Finland, of which it forms a strong bulwark. There are two passages that lead to the mouth of the Neva, one on the north, the other on the south: the latter is the only passage by which ships of burden can approach the capital, and this is commanded on one side by Cronstadt, and on the other by Cronchlot, which stands on another island. Both these forts are strongly built and fortified. At Cronstadt are the arsenals and docks of the Russian navy. Machines called camels, similar to those employed at Amsterdam and Hamburgh, are used to float the ships built at St. Petersburgh over the bar at the mouth of the river. The oak used in building ships at Cronstadt, comes chiefly from the distant province of Casan, and is consequently very expensive. The harbour is very spacious, and consists of three divisions. The largest of these, called the Merchants' Harbour, will contain 600 sail, but is exposed, as well as the Middle Harbour, to the west wind. The War Harbour is of small size and depth: it is designed for ships of war which are on service or under repair; and adjoining it are the docks. The houses fronting the harbour, which are built of brick, stuccoed white, have a handsome appearance; and, together with the lofty and spacious magazines, inspire expectations which are not realised on entering the town: there we find ill-paved streets and houses for the most part of wood. The public buildings are, the imperial hospital for sailors, the civil hospital, the barracks, five

Russian churches, including the cathedral church of St. Andrew, a Lutheran, and an English church. The population is estimated at 40,000 males, of whom at least 10,000 are sailors. The greater part of the inhabitants are Russians, but there are also English, Germans, Dutch, Americans, and Finlanders. It stands in lat. 59° 59′ 26″ N.; long. 29° 49′ 30″ E.

Next to St. Petersburgh in commercial importance, with the exception perhaps of Odessa, is the city of

RIGA.

THIS place, the capital of Livonia, is situated in a large plain on the Dwina or Duna, about nine miles from the sea, in lat. 56° 5′ 1″ N., long. 24° 7′ 45″ E.; 285 miles W.S.W. of St. Petersburgh, and 235 S.S.E. of Stockholm. The provinces of Livonia and Esthonia were both conquered from the Swedes by Peter the Great. They are described by Mr. Coxe, who travelled through them in 1779, as by no means fertile, but well cultivated, producing grain, hemp, and flax, and favourable to the rearing of cattle. Narva, the first town of consequence in the route from the capital, is situated on the Narova, eight miles from its entrance into the Gulf of Finland, and 83 miles W.S.W. of St. Petersburgh. It has more the appearance of a German than of a Russian town. The houses are of brick, stuccoed white. The population is between 3 and 4,000. The principal exports are hemp, flax, timber, and corn. In the suburb of Ivangorod are the remains of an extensive fortress built by the Czar Ivan Vassilievitch, which overhangs the Narova in a very picturesque manner. Near this town, in 1700, Peter the Great was defeated by Charles XII.,

taken only nineteen years old: the former commanded 32,000, the latter 9,000 men. Of the Russians, so many were taken prisoners, that only the officers were detained. In less than five years afterwards, Peter took Narva by assault.

Dorpt, 116 miles from Narva, suffered in a most dreadful manner during the wars between the Swedes and the Russians. This ancient town, situated on the river Embach, being in the high road to the capital, enjoys a considerable traffic. A university, with a large revenue, was established here in 1802; there are also a library, a museum, and a botanic garden. A great annual fair is held here. It stands in lat. 58° 22′ 45″ N., long. 25° 28′ 9″ E. Between this place and Narva lies the lake Peipouss. Round Dorpt, the country is extremely fertile, so as to have been called the granary of the North. This fertile district stretches as far as Riga, which, however, is surrounded with deep, barren sands.

The situation of Riga is highly favourable for trade, as the Dwina is navigable as far as the N.E. part of Poland and the western provinces of Russia, and can receive ships of burthen close to the walls of the town. The exports are computed at a million sterling, of which full half are sent to England and Scotland. The merchants are chiefly foreigners,—English and Scotch houses. The article of export for which it is most celebrated, is masts. Persons called mast-brokers are sent into the Russian provinces bordering on the Dnieper, who mark the trees fit for the purpose, which are conveyed by that river, a short land carriage, and the Dwina. The hemp, another article of export, is brought from the Ukraine and Poland by the same route; but, as the barges in which it is conveyed, of 250 or 300 tons, can pass

the Dwina only when it is deep, two years are employed in conveying the hemp to Riga. Over the Dwina, at this town, there is a floating wooden bridge, which rises and falls with the river: it is taken to pieces when the frost begins. The town stands on the right; the suburbs on the left bank of the river. Though the houses are generally of stone, and a number of them are neat, the town is far from handsome, the streets being narrow and crooked. The principal public buildings are, the town-house, the exchange, the house of assembly for the States of Livonia, the arsenal, the hospital of St. George, and the Katharinenhof. There are also a lyceum, an endowed high school, a public library, a cabinet of natural history, and a literary society. Though not regularly fortified, Riga is a place of some strength, being surrounded with an earthen mound and moat, and there is also a citadel. It has suffered at different times, both from fires and sieges. It was besieged by the Russians in 1656; by the Saxons and Poles in 1700; by the Russians in 1701; and by the French in 1812, when its suburbs were burned. The population is estimated at 36,000. The whole of Livonia is now comprehended in the Government of Riga, as Esthonia is included in the Government of Revel.

Sixteen miles beyond Riga, the traveller enters Courland, which was united to Russia in 1795; it was really under its influence long before. This province is fertile and well cultivated; its exports are flax, hemp, corn, and timber. Amber is found on its shores. Its inhabitants are Letts, Germans, and Livonians. Mittau, the capital, where Louis XVIII. for some time resided, is a town of little importance, Liebau being the seat of nearly all the commerce of

the province. The Niemen forms the boundary between Courland and Prussia.

FROM ST. PETERSBURGH TO ABO.

It is rather more than 100 years (A.D. 1721) since Russia acquired a portion of Finland from Sweden. In 1743, by the treaty of Abo, she acquired another portion; and by the peace of Fredericksham, in 1809, Alexander obtained the remainder. It is divided into seven provinces, of which East Bothnia is the least fertile. Though rye, oats, and barley will come to maturity, yet, the produce is so trifling as well as uncertain, that the inhabitants are obliged to depend at all times on importation; and frequently are driven to the necessity of mixing chopped straw, the bark of trees, and similar articles, with the meal of which they make their bread. The Fins are decidedly a distinct race from the Russians; and their dress, manners, and character are also different. They are of a middle stature, fair complexion, generally red hair, their beards shaven, and their hair, parted at top, is suffered to hang over their shoulders. A thoughtful disposition, often darkening into melancholy, and a singular language, which has the peculiarity of being without prepositions,* complete the national portrait.

* To supply this deficiency, the cases of the nouns are varied to the number of sixteen. The Tshudish tribes, under which term are comprehended the Fins, the Laplanders, the Esthonians, and the Livonians, are a race of unknown origin, but certainly having no connexion with the Huns or Mongols. Their respective languages differ only as peculiar dialects, the difference arising partly from a mixture of Scandinavian, partly from other causes. In Lapland, almost every church is said to have a peculiar version of the service. The Finnish is intermediate between the Lap-

Mr. Coxe visited this part of Finland in 1779, consequently before its annexation to Russia. He left St. Petersburgh for Wyburgh, on the 3d of February, the very middle of the severest season, and he gives the following account of his travelling equipment. "I had on a suit of Bath drugget, lined with flannel; two pairs of worsted stockings, slippers, over which I had boots, well secured with flannel and fur; these boots I generally wore in the carriage, but pulled off when I entered a house. If the weather had proved uncommonly severe, I was provided with a kind of sheep-skin case, with the wool on the inside, for each of my legs, which reached to my waist, and was large enough to enclose my boots. I wrapped round my body a great-coat of blue nankeen, lined with lambskin; and occasionally added a large pelisse or fur robe. I had a bear-skin muff, and my head was enveloped in a black velvet cap, quilted with silk and cotton, which covered my cheeks, was tied under my chin, and might, if necessary, be drawn over my face. Thus accoutred, I could venture to defy even the cold of Lapland. Our train consisted of eight sledges, including those appropriated to the baggage,—partly open, and partly covered. A sledge of this sort is shaped like a cradle; its tilt, which rises from the hinder extremity, and projects to about two feet, was open in front, but

landish and the Esthonian, which, with less variety of termination, has several intricate combinations. The Livonian is much mixed with other languages, and has been almost superseded by the Lettish or Lithuanian, a mixture of Slavonic and German, which is vernacular in Lettland and Courland, and is purest about Mittau and Riga. The ancient Courlanders were Fins, and this dialect has received from them a mixture of Finnish. There is said to be a considerable resemblance also between the Finnish and the Hungarian.—See VON ADELUNG'S *Mithridates*.

provided with curtains, which might be drawn and tied together, whenever the weather was severe. The outside was secured with matting and oil-skin, and the inside with coarse cloth. Within, was a mattress, feather-bed, and coverlid or quilt of coarse cloth. In this travelling couch I sometimes lay extended at full length; sometimes sat cross-legged like a Turk; and at other times raised myself on a seat formed by two cushions. Each sledge was drawn by two horses, which, on account of the narrowness of the roads, were harnessed one before the other. The usual rate of travelling is from six to eight miles an hour. The motion of the carriage over the beaten snow, was so easy as to be almost imperceptible; and I never performed any journey in a more commodious manner. Though we continued our route during the night, and there was no moon, yet, an aurora borealis and the whiteness of the snow supplied an agreeable species of twilight. The road, or rather path, through which our route lay, was scarcely more than a yard in breadth, sunk two or three feet below the level of the snow, and hardened by the repeated pressure of the horses and sledges. When two carriages met in this narrow track, the horses which turned out of the way, sank into the soft, untrodden snow as high as their girths."

Wyburgh, the principal town in that part of Finland which was wrested from the Swedes by Peter the Great, was built in the thirteenth century, as a military station, to check the increasing power of the republic of Novogorod. Its fortifications still remain. Its Finnish name is Somelinda. It was formerly the capital of all Carelia, and an episcopal city. The population is now between 3 and 4,000. The castle is an interesting building. The town contains four churches, three

Lutheran and one Russian, a large military hospital, a gymnasium, a governor's palace, and considerable magazines. It carries on an active trade in planks, tallow, resin, pitch, and potash. Lat. 60° 42′ 40″ N., long. 46° 15′ 50″ E.

Mr. James, who visited Russia in 1814, arrived at Wyburgh from the Aland Isles, after having travelled through Sweden; and he describes as very strongly marked, the transition by which the traveller here enters on a new territory. "However vague and ideal," he says, "the marks of geographical boundary may appear, it must be allowed that, on passing the line, an almost instantaneous difference is every where apparent. The inhabitants of this province have assimilated themselves entirely to the taste and manners of their conquerors, and, being mixed with numerous colonists, are now become a truly Russian people. On waking at an early hour after a sound sleep in my sledge, I gazed with wonder at the spectacle that presented itself in the streets of Wyburgh. The glare of white houses, their green roofs and oriental cupolas, the noble mansions of the wealthy, and the religious fane, all so spacious and splendid in comparison of what we had lately been accustomed to see; and yet, above all, the new costume of the bystanders, dressed in long, blue caftans, their bare necks, their flowing beards, their sash, cap, and boots of red; were altogether objects so singular, that the spectacle impressed itself on my mind as a dream of the morning, rather than as a scene of real life. The men seemed quite another race of beings; no longer the modest, homely Fin, but persons of a strong masculine habit, carrying a stubborn and listless mien, that, combined with their majestic stature, seemed by no means devoid of dignity; while the colour and orna-

ments with which they were set off, lent them an air of grotesque magnificence, not ill according with the showy buildings that surrounded us. Every object, in short, which met our eyes, partook of the same character, and bore a hint of its Asiatic origin."*

The country between this town and Abo, is described as, for the most part, "a succession of hill and dale, abounding in forests of fir and birch, interspersed with numerous lakes, and thickly overspread with shattered fragments of granite, which look like the wrecks of mountains." When Mr. Coxe travelled this route, there was no moon, nor even the smallest gleam of an aurora borealis; but, from the strong light reflected from the snow, the train of sledges made a very picturesque appearance as they "wound round the whitened hills, pierced into the thick forests, or extended in a straight line along the frozen surface of the lakes;" and the silence of night was frequently relieved by the carols of the drivers, who sang the most simple and pleasing airs. The Fins are very fond of music, and of the composition and recitation of songs. At their fairs, and often in their private meetings, the poet, in the midst of a circle of auditors, recites or sings one line, when a coadjutor, taking up the last word, finishes the line along with him, and then repeats it alone. The first speaker, in the mean time, recollects or composes the succeeding line, which he then sings, and his assistant repeats; and thus they proceed till the poem is ended.

Near Fredericksham, a small but strongly fortified town between Wyburgh and Abo, there is a bridge which formed the limit between Swedish and Russian

* James's Journal of a Tour in Germany, &c., vol. i. (3d ed.) p. 390.

Finland, before the total subjugation of this country by the present emperor. This bridge claims "a sort of historical notoriety from the mad caprice of the late Gustavus Adolphus, who, outstripping the limits of his jurisdiction, ordered the half of the bridge on the Russian side, as well as that on his own, to be painted with the Swedish colours. This pitiful act of aggression afterwards formed one of the pretexts of a war, that led his country to the very brink of destruction and, by its consequences, deprived the ancient blood of Vasa of their inheritance."*

The road generally followed from this bridge to Abo, lies near the shore of the Gulf of Bothnia. Masses of granite rocks, hills, and woods, diversify the country. Grouse, black-cocks, and ptarmigans abound in this district; and the cock of the wood, a large species of grouse, almost equal in size to a small turkey, is sometimes seen. In a very romantic situation, on a rising shore, near several rocks and immense fragments of granite, stands Helsingfors; near it is Sviaborg, the Gibraltar of the North. This fortress is not less singular in its construction, than remarkable for its strength. Six islands, which lie within the circumference of four miles, in the Gulf of Finland, about three miles and a half from Helsingfors, compose the fortress; or rather, strictly speaking, the three largest of these islands, connected by bridges, form the fortress itself, while the other three, strongly fortified, serve as its outworks. The works are partly blasted from the granite rock, and partly built of the same material. The walls are from six to ten feet thick, and in a few places forty-eight high. Eight hundred pieces of cannon protect this

* James's Journal, &c. vol. i. p. 37.

fortress, which has accommodations for 12,000 men. There is also a dry dock, with an arsenal, &c. These works, which nature and art seem to have combined to render impregnable, were surrendered by treachery to the Russians, both in the first and second wars of Finland.*

The country, for 150 miles, presents a picturesque diversity of hill and dale, and is better peopled than most other parts of Finland. Abo is situated at the union of the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, on the banks of a small river, and is built partly on a ridge of steep rocks, and partly on a plain. Most of the houses are of wood, painted red; some are of brick. It is an episcopal city, and has, besides its cathedral, a university, founded by Queen Christina in 1640, and enlarged by the present Emperor of Russia. Abo has a commodious harbour, and enjoys a considerable trade; its chief exports are timber, iron, tin, corn, and linen. There is here one of the best glass-houses in the Russian dominions. The population in 1791, was 11,500, but it has since then been on the increase. It stands in lat. 60° 28′ N., long. 22° 7′ E.

Mr. James mentions a singular custom as existing at Abo. The prevalent religion here, as in Sweden,

* At this place, Mr. James "made a trip over the sea, in a vessel moving with skaits on the ice;" an amusement which he thus describes:—"It was a frame of wood, laid down as the deck of a ship; two skaits were placed under the bows, and a third, being moveable on a pivot, supplied the place of a rudder. For obvious reasons she was rather awkward in her stays; and unless her crew shifted their seat from one side to the other with great adroitness, was infallibly overset. Her motion was tremendously rapid, and she held a complement of twenty or thirty persons; but, as the snow was necessarily cleared out for her track, the length of the voyage was of a limited extent. The circuit was ingeniously enough carried in the form of a pentagon, so as to enable her to take advantage of every wind."—*Journal*, vol. i. p. 387.

is the Lutheran. "The solemnisation of marriage takes place only once a year, and that on a fixed day in the teeming autumn. Before this time arrives, the expectant lover is not permitted, by the custom of the land, to pay his addresses in person to the object of his wishes. His offer is made by sending a piece of money, that is accepted or not, as the fair one is inclined to approve or reject his suit; but both the conveyance of this token of love, and the whole of the after ceremonials, are carried on through the intervention of some old woman of the village, whose occupation and calling may seem enviable to some bustling gentlewomen of other countries, being that of a regularly established match-maker."

The summer route from St. Petersburgh to Stockholm, is by land to Abo; and thence, by ship, through the islands of this part of the Gulf of Bothnia, to Aland: crossing this, a more open sea bears the traveller to the capital of Sweden. This route is likewise followed in winter, when the ice is sufficiently strong in the gulf, and among the islands; otherwise, the route lies round the top of the gulf by Torneo. Both Mr. Coxe and Mr. James crossed the Frozen Sea. About forty miles from Abo, the former arrived upon the Gulf of Bothnia. The track over the frozen surface between the islands, is marked out by boughs of trees placed at intervals, and, on shore, by large poles with bunches of straw on their tops. The duty of providing these necessary way-marks, devolves upon the inhabitants of the several parishes respectively. Notice is given at church as soon as the ice may be reckoned secure, and certain distances are allotted to the share of each individual. Travelling by night is extremely dangerous, not merely from the danger of wandering from the path, but also from the large

holes which frequently occur in the ice. Some of the islands are bare granite; others are covered with underwood, and well inhabited. In some places, Mr. Coxe found the ice regular and smooth; in others, frozen into waves and large masses. The peasants of one island, where he stopped during the night, are described as well clothed and very honest. Their cottages, like those in Russia, were formed of trees piled one on the other, containing two or three apartments, small, but neat and clean. They had many conveniences unknown to the Russian peasants, particularly beds. While our Traveller was here, the weather suddenly changed: a storm, followed by a clear, warm sun, rendered the remaining passage rather more dangerous, several apertures having been formed in the ice, which had moreover become less solid and strong. It was therefore deemed prudent that the party should be preceded by a guide, who carried a hatchet and plumbing iron; the former to cut the ice, and the latter to measure its thickness. In about eight hours, proceeding in this manner, Mr. Coxe reached the isle of Aland, a distance of about thirty-five miles.

The main island, which gives name to all the rest, is about 40 miles in length, and from 12 to 16 in breadth. It contains 15 villages, and 9,000 inhabitants. Each householder is his own carpenter, shoemaker, tailor, fisherman, baker, and miller. The corn-mills almost equal in number the houses: they are rudely and cheaply made, the sails of wooden planks, and the mill-stones are shaped like the quern of the Highlands of Scotland. Their cabins are seldom painted. Sheep-skins form their common dress, and bags of dried seal-skins serve for their shoes. "Upon a general view of their condition," remarks Mr. James,

"the Fins are not much improved (the rustics at least) since the days when we first hear their names mentioned; and the short, pithy description of Tacitus is often quoted in allusion to their present habits and character. I do not know that their late annexation to the Russian dominions has been productive of any symptoms of discontent or ill-will. The peasants in Aland, it is true, complained of the exactions of the soldiery; and, generally speaking, their honest prejudices seemed to incline them in favour of the government they had so long been accustomed to obey. Yet, the more wealthy and thinking classes cannot but feel the advantages of their present situation. Incorporated with a more powerful state, they are delivered from the perpetual dread of seeing their country made the seat of war; their trade and commerce are more free and more liberally encouraged; while, as far as it can be made compatible with the Russian system, they are granted the exercise of their ancient liberties, customs, and privileges;—for the policy that attends the Russian schemes of aggrandisement, in this respect as well as others, is ever that of the Roman conqueror."

We have now conducted our readers to the western limit of this immense empire, for so the line of its boundary in this direction was settled by the treaty of 1809. Returning to Abo, and proceeding in a N.W. direction, no place of importance or interest occurs during a long and dreary interval, till we reach

ARCHANGEL.

THE government of Olonetz, which lies between that of Finland and that of Archangel, presents for nearly its whole surface, an assemblage of stones, lakes, morasses, and forests; so that its thin population are

obliged to depend for the necessaries of life almost entirely on other parts of Russia. In its mountains are found quarries of a species of marble and of porphyry, and mines of iron and copper: on these, the inhabitants exercise their skill and industry, and from these they draw the means of subsistence. Their whole number does not reach 200,000, of whom the Russians form one half, and the Carelians, a tribe of Fins, the other. Lake Onega lies within the limits of this government, between Lake Ladoga and the White Sea.

The government of Archangel is of great extent, stretching eastward to the borders of Asia, and to the west as far as the goverment of Olonetz and Swedish and Danish Lapland. The Frozen Ocean and the White Sea form its northern boundaries, and the governments of Vologda and Olonetz its southern. Within its limits are also comprised the island of *Novai Zemlia*, or the New Land, (improperly called Nova Zembla,) and several other small islands of the Arctic Ocean. Its surface is covered with a number of lakes and morasses; and, in proportion to its size, its population is very trifling, consisting of Russians, Laplanders, and Samoids. The last are a nomadic and idolatrous tribe, scarcely raised above the lowest scale of ignorance and barbarism, living by the chase and fishing. Of the other inhabitants, the more civilised employ themselves in feeding cattle, and in fattening calves for the St. Petersburgh market: the excellency of Archangel veal has been already noticed. Such of them as live near the sea, are employed in catching whales, herrings, &c., for which they sometimes go even as far as Spitzbergen. Furs are also an article of their traffic, and eider-down.

In this barren district stands the city of Archangel,

formerly the only maritime place in Russia, and ranking in size and consequence among the chief cities in the empire; it still retains a considerable portion of importance and wealth. It stands on the Dwina, where it falls into the Gulf of Archangel, or part of the White Sea, in lat. 64° 33′ 36″ N., long. 38° 59′ 30″ E. We have already mentioned its accidental discovery by the English in 1558. At that period, and till the conquests of Peter the Great on the shores of the Baltic led to the founding of St. Petersburgh, Archangel was the emporium of Russia. Since then, its trade has declined, and its population, which, in its flourishing state, amounted to 30,000, does not now reach 7,000 souls. Their early and long-continued intercourse with the English, introduced among the inhabitants a degree of mercantile information and general intelligence very superior to that which other Russian merchants possessed; and Mr. Coxe mentions that, even so lately as when he visited St. Petersburgh, the most honest and intelligent among the merchants and tradesmen of the capital, were the natives of Archangel and its environs. Many of them were employed by the members of the British factory to superintend their warehouses; and they bore the general character of faithful and industrious servants. In the days of its prosperity, a great fair was held at Archangel in the month of August, during which 300 ships, English, Dutch, French, Swedish, and Danish, were often to be seen in its harbour. But, though the commerce of this place has much fallen off, the Dwina, on which it stands, forms the chief communication between the northern and western parts of Siberia, from which iron and various kinds of furs are procured: these, with hemp, flax, potash, caviare, tar, tallow, hides, timber, &c., are the chief

articles of export. Its merchants not only trade with the foreigners who visit their port, but frequent the fairs of the interior of the empire, and proceed, for the purposes of trade, sometimes even as far as the frontiers of China.

We must now return to St. Petersburgh, and take the route to Moscow, the ancient capital of the Russian empire, and, within these few years, the scene of one of the most memorable events in ancient or modern history.

FROM ST. PETERSBURGH TO MOSCOW.

THE carriage road between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, as in most other parts of Russia, is constructed in the following manner: "Trunks of trees are laid transversely in rows parallel to each other, and are bound down in the centre, and at each extremity, by long poles or beams, fastened into the ground with wooden pegs; these trunks are covered with layers of boughs, and the whole is strewed over with sand and earth. When the road is new, it is remarkably good; but, as the trunks decay or sink into the ground, and as the sand or earth is worn away, or washed off by the rain, (as is frequently the case for several miles together.) it is broken into innumerable holes; and the jolting of the carriage over the bare timber can better be conceived than described."* In winter, however, the snow, in most parts of Russia, admits of a much more pleasant and expeditious mode of travelling by means of sledges.

* The inhabitants of Russia, to alleviate this inconvenience, universally fill their travelling carriages with soft pillows, taken from their beds, which give a particularly luxurious but grotesque appearance to their equipages.

The distance between the two capitals is 487 miles. Peter the Great began to construct a road which was to be continued the whole way, in a straight line,—an elevated causeway, carried over marsh and bog, and through thick forests of birch and fir,—in other words, a bridge of timber. When Mr. Hanway travelled, in 1743, only one hundred miles had been completed in pursuance of the original plan; and, according to a calculation made by him, no fewer than 2,100,000 trees were required. On each side of this, as of all the other great provincial roads, the law directs, that an esplanade should be made, 100 yards broad, for the accommodation of cattle coming to market: by means of this convenience, the journey from the Ukraine to St. Petersburgh, which occupies two months, becomes practicable at little expense to the graziers, and with little fatigue or injury to their cattle.

Many villages line the road from St. Petersburgh to Moscow; they are all very similar to one another, consisting of a single street, with wooden cottages, and a few with brick houses.* In the villages, the trees that form the road, are much more neatly and carefully joined together, than in the other parts of the road. The present emperor has done much to facilitate the intercourse between the two capitals:

* "The whole journey from St. Petersburgh to Moscow, offers nothing that will strike a traveller more than the town or village of Jedrova; it consists of one street, as broad as Piccadilly, formed by the gable-ends of wooden huts, whose roofs project far above their bases; and this street is terminated by the church. There is seldom any difference in constructing the poorer towns in Russia: a window in such places is a mark of distinction, and seldom found. The houses in general have only small holes, through which, as you drive by, you see a head stuck, as in a pillory."—CLARKE'S *Travels*, vol. i. p. 43.

a great part of the road is already *Macadamised*, and diligences run daily. Dr. Clarke, in his journey between the two capitals, made use of a German *bātarde*, which he regards as best adapted for a journey in which the traveller passes from one climate to another, where of course sledges cannot be used. It is in reality an English chariot, with a *dormeuse* behind; instead of a window, there is a large lamp. "Thus provided," observes Dr. Clarke, "a person may travel night and day, fearless of want of accommodation or of houses of repose. His carriage is his home, which accompanies him every where; and if he choose to halt, or accidents oblige him to stop in the midst of a forest or a desert, he may sleep, read, write, eat, drink, or amuse himself with any portable musical instrument, careless of the frosts of the north, or the dews, the mosquitoes, and vermin of the south. Over snowy regions, he places his house upon a sledge, and, when the snow melts, upon its wheels; being always careful, where wheels are used for long journeys through hot countries, to soak them in water whenever he stops for the night." A more characteristic and national vehicle is the *kibitka*, described by Sir Robert Ker Porter as "nothing more than a large wooden cradle."* Mr. Coxe says, it is the old Scythian waggon. It holds two persons abreast; the driver sits at the further end, near the horse's tail; the hinder part is covered with a tilt, open in front, made of laths, and covered with birch, or other bark. The whole machine does not contain a single piece of iron, and there are no springs: the body of the carriage is fastened to the wheels by wooden pins, ropes, and sticks. In order

* That in which Sir Robert travelled, was "fixed on a double keel, or skate of wood, strongly shod with iron."

to prevent the inconvenience that would arise from the jolting in such roads as those of Russia, a feather bed is usually placed at the bottom. With this precaution, a *kibitka* is a snug and comfortable vehicle. In some parts of Tartary, the top is taken off at night, and serves as a tent; hence the Russians call the tents of the Calmucks *kibitka*.

An English traveller who had visited the most remote and desolate parts of the Scotch Highlands, even half a century ago, would be ill prepared to encounter the inconveniences, discomforts, and privations to which he would be exposed in journeying from one capital of Russia to the other, if he did not carry along with him the means of preventing or remedying them. The representations of Dr. Clarke with regard to the condition of Russia, must be taken with much caution and qualification; yet, he speaks but the language of all other travellers in this country, when he advises that nothing should be expected from inns or houses of entertainment, not even clean straw for a bed. He enumerates the following articles as forming an indispensable portion of the traveller's baggage:—a pewter tea-pot; a kettle; a saucepan, the top of which may be used as a dish; tea, sugar, and a large cheese; loaves of bread made into rusks; if in the winter, frozen meat; wine in the cold districts, vinegar in the hot. Thus prepared, he may safely encounter this long journey.

The imperial palace of Tsarskoe-Selo is the only object worth notice that occurs between St. Petersburgh and Novogorod. Captain Cochrane arrived at Tzarskoe-Selo, on the night of the 24th of May, 1820, just in time to see "the emperor's favourite palace wrapt in an nextinguishable flame." Alexander was himself a spectator of the misfortune. "Tzarskoe-Selo,"

says the Captain, "was the palace in which the emperor and his brother Constantine had been brought up, and passed their earlier years. It was hither, also, that the emperor was accustomed to retire, when the cares of state permitted him, from the anxieties of a throne. It had been greatly embellished by his majesty, and was considered as one of the most beautiful retreats in Europe." A long avenue of trees, superb mile-stones of granite and marble at the end of each verst, or three-quarters of a mile, a country enlivened with houses, and enriched by cultivation, render the first ten miles interesting and pleasant. After that, as far as Itchora, which is twenty miles from the capital, the traveller passes through an inhospitable and thinly-peopled district, which prepares him for the scenes he is to witness, and the inconveniences he has to experience, during the greater part of the remainder of his journey to Moscow.

In the routes we have described through the conquered provinces of the Baltic, the Russian peasantry are not met with; and in the route to Archangel, it would have been unfair to take our ideas of their general condition and character, from the appearance they exhibit in a remote, sterile, and little-frequented district. On the road from St. Petersburgh to Moscow, they present themselves under the most favourable circumstances. With a few exceptions, the peasants of Russia are all slaves: they form two classes—peasants of the crown, and peasants belonging to individuals. The present emperor has done much to lessen the evils of the condition of the former, and to render their manumission, as well as that of the latter class, more easily practicable. Yet, the condition of both is still

degrading and deplorable. It is calculated, that about a sixth part of the peasantry belong to the crown; these are immediately under the jurisdiction of the imperial officers: many have been enfranchised, and have become burghers. Peasants belonging to individuals are their private property, as much as the cattle on their estates. The rent paid by the crown peasants is fixed; that paid by private peasants is regulated by their means of getting money, or, in other words, is a tax on their industry. There is no law to restrain the demands of the master: their time and labour are absolutely at his command. Some of the nobility send their slaves to St. Petersburgh or Moscow, to be instructed in various trades; and then, either employ them on their own estates, let them for hire, sell to them permission to exercise their trade, or dispose of them at an advanced price. Some of the Russian nobles have 70,000 or 100,000 peasants; from this, it may well be supposed that their wealth is immense, in whatever manner the labour of these slaves is employed. Women and children, as well as men, must labour for their master, for such pay as his caprice or his wants may dispose or enable him to give. Tithes are besides demanded of whatever may remain in their hands. As soon as a child reaches the age of ten, its labour is required; and when he reaches fifteen, each male slave is obliged by law to labour three days in each week for his master. If the proprietor chooses to employ him the other days, he may; as, for example, in a manufactory: in this case, however, he finds him in food and clothing. In general, the master, instead of exacting the labour of his slave for the stated portion of the week, agrees to receive a rent,

and he is bound to furnish him with a house and a certain portion of land; the aged and infirm are provided with food, raiment, and lodging, at his expense.

"The master has the power of correcting his slaves, by blows or confinement;" but the law—which, however, is easily evaded—forbids the exercise of any great cruelty. No slave can quit his village, or, if he be a domestic slave, his master's family, without a passport.* Imprisonment with hard labour is the punishment for run-away slaves. A master may send his slave to the public work-house, or into the army; in the latter case, he sends one man less the next levy. No slave can be sold out of Russia, nor in it, except to a noble; but this law is frequently eluded. A slave may obtain his liberty by manumission, (this is frequently granted to favourite domestic slaves, on the death of their master,) by purchase, or by serving in the army or navy.

The political state of the Russian peasantry, degrading and injurious as it is to the highest energies and best feelings of our nature, is not, however, much aggravated by their condition in other respects. If any thing could atone for personal and political slavery, it might be justly maintained, that a large class of the peasantry of Ireland, from the total absence of domestic comfort among them, are in a more miserable state than the slaves of Russia.†

* If a person be found dead without a passport, his body is sent to the hospital for dissection.

† "I have no hesitation in saying," affirms Captain Cochrane, "that the condition of the peasantry here is far superior to that class in Ireland. In Russia, provisions are plentiful, good, and cheap, while in Ireland, they are scanty, poor, and dear, the best part

Their houses, formed of whole trees, and usually constructed solely with the assistance of the hatchet, are in tolerable repair, and well adapted to their habits. They sometimes, but not often, consist of two stories: the lower forms a store-room; in the upper one they dwell. A kind of ladder on the outside serves as a staircase. There is generally but one room in the habitable part. Their furniture seldom comprises more than a wooden table, and benches fastened to the sides of the room, wooded platters, bowls, and spoons, and, perhaps, a large earthen pan to cook their victuals in. Their diet is substantial; black rye-bread, eggs, salt fish, mushrooms, and bacon: a hotch-potch of salt or fresh meat, groats, and rye-flour, seasoned with onions and garlic, constitutes their favourite dish. Of this kind of food, they obtain plenty at

being exported from the latter country, while the local impediments in the other render them not worth that expense. Good comfortable log-houses are here found in every village; immense droves of cattle are scattered over an unlimited pasturage, and whole forests of fuel may be obtained for a trifle. With ordinary industry and economy, the Russian peasant may become rich, especially those of the villages situated between the capitals, both of which might be supplied by them with butter and cheese; whereas at present not a dairy exists, the peasantry contenting themselves with the culture of as much land, and the breeding of as many cattle, as may be sufficient for their immediate wants. The women I have always found engaged in some employment: they make very good coarse woollen cloths and linens, as well as knit stockings and spin thread. The whole work of the house is thrown upon them, while they also partake of the labours of the field. I will not, certainly, recommend for the adoption of any civilised countries, the treatment they receive from their lordly masters; although I have no doubt the like was the custom of England half a century ago, and may be still in the hard-working counties. Having mentioned Ireland in comparison with Russia, I may remark, that both countries may fairly vie with one another in the ancient savage virtue of hospitality."—COCHRANE's *Pedestrian Journey*, vol. i. p. 78.

a cheap rate. Their clothing, however, is dear.* To clothe a Russian peasant or soldier, costs nearly three times as much as in England; but their clothing is strong, and being made loose and wide, lasts longer. "It is rare to see a Russian in rags." In general, the Russian peasants are a large, coarse, hardy race, of great bodily strength, rarely below the middle stature, strong-limbed, commonly lean, but well-built. Their mouth and eyes are small, their lips thin, teeth even and beautiful; their hair brown, reddish, or flaxen; their beard strong and bushy. Their organs of taste, smell, sight, and hearing, are acute, especially the latter two. They are brisk and active, and by no means wanting in industry, when they have an interest in exertion. The complexion of the female peasantry is *brunette*; their skin in general delicate. Some of them, as well as of the other classes, are extremely handsome. Females of all ranks soon attain maturity, but fall off and look old at a very early period of life. The frequent use of the hot-bath is supposed to occasion this premature decay among all classes; while, among the higher ranks, the odious practice of painting the face, and, among the peasantry, hard work, their peculiar food, and inattention to their persons, contribute to the same effect.

* In summer, they generally wear nankeen caftans, one of which costs thirteen roubles. The *labkas* (sandals made of linden bark) cost nothing, except in great towns. A blue nankeen shirt, trimmed with red, costs two or three roubles. They wear linen drawers, and linen or hempen rags wrapped round their legs and feet, over which the richer sort draw their boots. The sheep-skin *schaub* costs eight roubles, but it lasts a long time, as does a lamb-skin cap, which costs three roubles; the common red cap costs about the same. For a common cloth *caftan*, such as the peasants sometimes wear, Mr. Heber was asked thirty roubles.

By far the most important and interesting place between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, is the city of

NOVOGOROD.

THERE are few cities, indeed, in the whole extent of the Russian empire, the history and present state of which, as contrasted with its former condition, supply such interesting materials as this. It is situated in lat. 58° 31′ 32″ N., long. 31° 19′ 39″ E., in a fine plain, at the northern end of Lake Ilmen. The River Volkhov divides it into two parts; on the right bank is the market-town, called Torgovaia: on the left bank, the quarter of St. Sophia. At a short distance, especially when approached from the Moscow side, it exhibits a most imposing appearance. The number and grandeur of the churches and convents which rise to the eye on every side, give high expectation of an approach to a large and magnificent city; but this expectation is not realised. "The melancholy ideas excited by the present appearance of Novogorod," remarks Dr. Clarke, "have been felt by all travellers. Who has not heard the ancient saying, which prevailed in the days of its greatness—*Quis contra Deos et magnam Novogordiam?*—Who can resist the Gods and Novogorod the Great?* Nomade Slavonians were its founders, about the time that the Saxons, invited by Vortigern,

* The city was styled *Novgorod Veliki*, Novogorod the Great, to distinguish it from *Nijni Novgorod*, in Great Russia, *Novgorod Severskoi* (Northern Novogorod), in the Government of Tchernigoff, and *Novgorodka*, in Lithuania. *Novgorod*, or *Novgrad*, signifies new town, the name originally given to it in contradistinction to the ancient *Slavensk*, the site of which is found at *Staroe Gorodistche*. It was also called by the ancient writers *Holmgard*, and the country *Gard-erik*, or *Ostro-gard*, i. e. [illegible]east country.

first came into Britain. Four centuries after, a motley tribe, collected from the original inhabitants of all the watery and sandy plains around the Finland Gulf, made it their metropolis. Nearly a thousand years have passed away since Ruric, the Norman, gathering them together at the mouth of the Volchova (Volkhov), laid the foundation of an empire destined to extend over the vast territories of all the Russias; afterwards, ascending the river to the spot where its rapid current rushes from the Lake Ilmen, to the Ladoga Lake, he fixed his residence in Novogorod. In the midst of those intestine divisions which resulted from the partition of the empire, at the death of Vladimir (A.D. 1015), who divided his states among his twelve sons,* there arose three independent princes and a great number of petty confederacies. The seat of government was successively removed to Suzedal, Vladimir, and Moscow. Novogorod adopted a mixed government, partly monarchical and partly republican. In the middle of the thirteenth century (A.D. 1250), it was distinguished by the victories of its grand duke over the Swedes on the banks of the Neva; and by its remote situation, it escaped the ravages of the Tâtars in the fourteenth. In the fifteenth, it submitted to the yoke of Ivan I., whose successor, Ivan II., in the sixteenth, ravaged and desolated the place, carrying away the palladium of the city, the famous bell, which the inhabitants had dignified with the appellation of *eternal*. But its ruin was not fully accomplished until the building of St. Petersburgh, when all the commerce of the Baltic was transferred to that capital."†

* Most of the Russian authorities say only ten, and these we have followed in our abstract of Russian history.

† Clarke's Travels, vol. i. p. 33.

Its republican form of government in the middle ages, and the privileges and liberty enjoyed under that form by its inhabitants, prepared the way for commercial industry and enterprise: its situation, too, was favourable for commerce. From these causes it became, about the middle of the fifteenth century, the chief factory of the Hanseatic league, in their trade with Russia and Poland. At this period, its territory was very extensive, reaching, on the north, to the frontiers of Livonia and Finland, and comprising a great part of the province of Archangel, with a large district beyond the north-western limits of Siberia. It was at this period that its power was so great, as to give rise to the proverb above alluded to. In the year 1553, in consequence of the arbitrary and tyrannical proceedings of Ivan IV., in seizing the effects, and imprisoning the persons of the German merchants resident there, Novogorod was abandoned by the Hanseatic league: the merchants connected with it, removed first to Revel, and afterwards to Narva. It still continued, however, to be the largest and most commercial city in all Russia. Chancellor, who passed through it in 1554, in his way to Moscow, thus describes it: "Next unto Moscow, the city of Novogorod is reputed the chiefest of Russia; for although it be in majestie inferior to it, yet, in greatnesse, it goeth beyond it. It is the chiefest and greatest mart town of all Muscovy; and albeit the emperor's seat is not there, but at Moscow, yet, the commodiousness of the river, falling into that gulph which is called *Sinus Finnicus*, whereby it is well frequented by merchants, makes it more famous than Moscow itself."

Its present size, condition, and number of inhabitants, form a strong contrast to what they were in

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the days of its commercial and political glory, when it contained at least 400,000 inhabitants, and covered an area of 63 versts in circumference. Some idea of its populousness in 1508, may be formed from the fact, that, in that year, above 15,000 died of an epidemical disorder. The number of its inhabitants at present does not exceed 7,000. Its streets present mouldering walls, empty courts, churches in decay, and a few dwellings thinly scattered amidst large traces of desolation.

There are still, however, some objects worthy of observation. The cathedral of St. Sophia is generally considered as one of the most ancient churches in Russia. It was built in the eleventh century, soon after Christianity was introduced into Russia by the Greeks, and dedicated to St. Sophia, in imitation of the name given to the magnificent edifice erected by Justinian at Constantinople. With Christianity, the art of painting was introduced; and in this cathedral there still exist paintings by Greek artists, executed at a period anterior to the revival of the art in Italy, and bearing inscriptions in the Greek characters of those times. The figures of our Saviour, of the Virgin Mary, and of various saints, of which these paintings consist, are finished in a hard, flat style of colouring, upon a gold ground, and are exactly similar to those of the Greek artists by whom, according to Vasari, painting was first introduced into Italy. The Russians, who are peculiarly happy in a talent of imitation, have copied these paintings. "Thus we find," Dr. Clarke remarks, "at the end of the eighteenth century, a Russian peasant placing before his *Bogh* (God), a picture purchased in the markets of St. Petersburgh or Moscow, exactly similar to those brought from Greece during the tenth; — the same stiff repre-

sensation of figures, which the Greeks themselves seem to have copied from works in mosaic; the same mode of mixing and laying on the colours on a plain gold surface; the same custom of painting upon wood; and the same expensive covering of a silver coat of mail." There are also some curious specimens of architecture as well as of painting, of the date of the eleventh and twelfth centuries. The entrance to the cathedral is through a pair of brazen gates, which, according to a doubtful tradition, were brought from Cherson at the time of Vladimir's expedition against the Greek empire. The tombs of that sovereign and of Theodor are in the cathedral. The walls of the kremlin still remain, comprehending within their circle the cathedral, as well as the ancient archi-episcopal palace, with its staircase on the outside, the new palace, and a few other brick buildings: the rest is overspread with weeds and nettles, and covered with ruins.

Upon the bridge leading to the kremlin from the other part of the town, "is a small sanctuary, where," Dr. Clarke says, "every peasant who passes, deposits either his candle or his penny. Before this place, which is filled with old pictures of the kind already described, and which a stranger might really mistake for a picture-stall, devotees during the whole day may be seen bowing and crossing themselves. A Russian hardly commits any action without this previous ceremony. If he be employed to drive your carriage, his crossing occupies two minutes before he is mounted. When he descends, the same motion is repeated. If a church be in view, you see him at work with his head and hand as if seized with St. Vitus's dance. If he make any earnest protestation, or enter a room, or go out, you are entertained

with the same manual and capital exercise. When beggars return thanks for alms, the operation lasts a longer time; and then, between the crossing, by way of interlude, they generally make prostration, and touch their foreheads to the earth." *

The market town or trading quarter of Novogorod, contains the governor's house, with a great number of wooden habitations, and would be regarded by the traveller as a mere Russian village, were it not for the vast number of brick churches and convents that attest its former magnificence. The river, which is of considerable depth, and rather broader than the Thames at Windsor, bears evidence to the well-chosen situation of this place for commerce; but it now flows idly by. Thus, under this northern latitude, in a city which history has almost forgotten, we have repeated, the common tale of the rise and fall of other free commercial states, — Tyre, Carthage, Venice, Pisa, and Genoa.

The inhabitants of this city boast that it never was subdued or even visited by the Tâtars; and they point to the cross unaccompanied by the crescent, at the top of their steeples, as an emblem of this proud fact.†

Near Bronitza, a village upon the Masta, within twenty miles of Novogorod, in the middle of a vast plain, there is an insulated hill, the lower part of which is thickly strewed with detached pieces of red and grey granite. These blocks of granite, which

* Clarke, vol. i. p. 39.

† It is a prevailing opinion, that the unconquered cities in Russia are distinguished from those which were reconquered from the Tatars, by the former exhibiting the cross alone, and the latter, the crescent surmounted by the cross: the truth of this opinion, however, is doubted by some writers.

are found in Finland, and in many parts of the country between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, form a geological problem not easily explained. There are likewise near this village, several of those barrows or *tumuli*, so common in various parts of Russia. The erection of these is generally ascribed to the Tâtars. It is known, that during one of their invasions of Russia, they were repulsed by the army of Novogorod, not far from this place. The fantastical and singular taste with which the cottages in these parts are distinguished, is also ascribed to the fashion of the Tâtars, though it seems highly improbable that any thing should have been borrowed from an enemy whose abode was of so short duration. The high gable roofs of these cottages project sometimes as much as sixteen or eighteen feet over the front; they are profusely carved, and adorned with small pendants at the extremities, "in the form of which," Mr. James remarks, "as well as in their collocation, a curious resemblance may be traced between them and the houses in the northernmost parts of the Tyrol: they are similar also in this respect, that the communications in the upper stories are carried on by means of a gallery outside of the wall."

From the top of a church on the summit of an insulated hill near Bronitza, is obtained a very singular as well as extensive prospect. For three or four miles, the country is divided into large enclosures of pasture and corn-fields. On the south, the Valdai hills are seen skirting an immense plain, which extends to the north, east, and west, as far as the eye can reach. Not a single hillock can be detected in its whole expanse. A few solitary wooden villages, like so many points in a boundless desert, are faintly and with difficulty descried in the midst of an almost interminable

forest. At a great distance, beyond this plain, rise the spires of Novogorod, and the Lake Ilmen is scarcely discernible through the thick gloom of the trees. This, though on a larger scale, and with stronger features than commonly occur, may fairly be taken as a scene characteristic of most parts of European Russia.

Mr. Coxe passed through this district about the end of September. The corn had been already harvested; for it ripens earlier here, than might be expected in such a northern climate. As, however, the cold weather not unfrequently sets in before the grain is thoroughly fit for the sickle, the peasants, to remedy the evil, erect a wooden building, resembling in form their cottages, but without windows, and with a small door, under which a large cavity is dug; in this cavity, the corn in the ear, as soon as it is cut, is laid and dried by means of a fire: it is then hung on frames in the air, and afterwards threshed. In this part of his journey, Mr. Coxe passed numberless herds of oxen, most of them in their way from the Ukraine to the capital. During this progress of nearly 800 miles, the drovers seldom enter a house: their cattle are fed on the strips of pasture that line the side of the road, and the foliage of the trees forms their own covering in bad weather. "In the evening, the silence of the country was interrupted by the occasional lowing of the oxen, and the carols of the drivers; while the solitary gloom of the forest was enlivened by the glare of numerous fires, surrounded by different groupes of herdsmen in various attitudes: some were sitting round the flame, some employed in dressing their provisions, and others sleeping on the bare ground. They resembled in their dress and manners a rambling horde of Tâtars."

It is not only the drovers who are fond of singing

these carols; the Russian peasantry generally have the same taste and propensity. When serving as coachmen or postilions, they begin to sing as soon as ever they are mounted, and continue without interruption for several hours. Occasionally, they perform in parts; and Mr. Coxe frequently observed them engaged in a kind of musical dialogue, making reciprocal questions and responses, as if they were chanting their ordinary conversation. He adds: "The postilions sing from the beginning to the end of a stage; the soldiers sing continually during their march; the countrymen sing during their most laborious occupations; the public houses re-echo with their carols; and on a still evening, I have frequently heard the air vibrate with the notes from the surrounding villages."

The most common and favourite music of the Russian peasantry, over the whole extent of their vast empire, is one species of simple melody: this, however, admits of infinite variation, according to the custom of the particular province, or the ability and taste of the individual singer. The song, an ancient legend, a declaration of love, a dialogue between a lover and his mistress, a description of a beautiful girl, a murder, or the history of an enormous giant, forms the usual burden of their songs, which are mostly in prose, and often extempore. Sometimes, mere letters and syllables without meaning, but metrically arranged, are adapted to the air. This is the common practice in the lullabies sung by mothers to their children; and while they are singing them, the male peasants often perform the national dance to the same tune, accompanied with instrumental music.

The country round Valdai, the next place on the road to Moscow, is more agreeable and diversified than

this part of Russia usually presents. The town lies on an agreeable slope; and its houses are better built and more decorated than the generality of Russian cottages. In point of situation, Mr. James says, it is an oasis in the desert. This town was originally peopled with Polish and Finnish captives, in the reign of the Czar Alexis Mikhailovitch, and it still exhibits, in the complexion and beauty of the women, traces of its origin: the inhabitants are distinguished also by a peculiarity of accent or pronunciation. It is surrounded, on three sides, by a mud rampart, the fourth being open to the lake; and contains three churches, about 500 houses, and 1,500 inhabitants. It stands in lat. 57° 48′ N., long. 51° 30′ E. of Paris. Valdai gives its name to a lake and a chain of hills. The lake is nine miles in circumference, with a wooded island in its centre: on this stands a handsome monastery, the glittering spires of which, rising among the dark foliage of surrounding and intervening trees, form a beautiful and interesting object. The whole scene, Mr. James says, "glows with that luxuriant interchange of white and red, and green and gold, that enters so largely into the composition of a Russian view." The Valdai hills are not of great elevation; but they are the highest between the Gulf of Finland and the Euxine Sea; and separate the waters which flow towards the Caspian, from those which flow towards the Baltic.* Their direction is N.E. and S.W. They are covered with trees, chiefly pine, fir, birch, linden, aspen, and alder. The soil in the vales is ertile, mostly clay and marl.

The circumstance, that the rivers rising in the

* Mr. Tooke computed the highest point at about 1,200 feet above the level of the sea.

Valdai hills, take their course, some into the Gulf of Finland, and some into the Euxine, induced Peter the Great to fix on this spot as affording the means of opening a water communication between the northern and southern regions of his empire. He accordingly formed the Vyshnei Voloshok canal, which has been already described as contributing to supply St. Petersburgh with the commodities of the extreme east and south of the Russian empire. There were great difficulties to be overcome, arising from the nature of the ground and other circumstances; but Peter was not to be discouraged. Of late years, the facilitating of inland navigation has been a particular object of attention with the Russian government. The old canals have been improved, new ones have been completed, and others are either in progress or in contemplation. All these undertakings, however, have been exclusively projected and accomplished by the crown. The canal of Vyshnei Voloshok is justly regarded as unequalled for the extent of its navigation, accomplished by artificial means and with so little labour. Three versts was the whole distance which it was necessary to cut through, to unite the Volga with the rivers which communicate with the Baltic; and this distance having been cut through, a navigable channel was formed of at least 5,000 versts. Above 4,000 vessels pass the canal annually. The nature of the voyage near the river Msta, where the fall of ground is considerable, is curious. The barges being all assembled by beat of drum, the sluices are opened, and they are rapidly hurried down the falls. In order to prevent accidents, large buoys are moored in the more difficult windings of the river, constructed and fixed in such a manner, as to wheel round the head

of the boat, when it strikes against them, if their sweeps have failed to direct their course. Cossacks also are stationed, who give notice above of any accident, on which the sluices are shut, and the current is thus stopped. The length of this dangerous passage is nearly thirty-three versts. The boats also are peculiar in their construction, with a view to adapt them to such perilous navigation. "Each boat is built slight and supple, and the freight is set apart by an open space of one or two feet in the middle, so as to give room for the play of the timbers of her frame, which is sometimes so shaken, that the two sides of the barge are brought to meet. To remount the cataracts is impossible; the vessels, therefore, are all burnt for firewood at St. Petersburgh."*

A variation of the national costume is observable among the female peasants of the district of Valdai, whose dress resembles that which is worn in some parts of Switzerland. A shift with full sleeves, a short petticoat, and coloured stockings, compose their summer dress. In winter, they wear over this a pelisse of lamb's-wool, lined with cloth, and adorned with gold buttons and lace. The hair of the unmarried women, as in most parts of Russia, is braided, and hangs to a great length down the back; a married woman is distinguished by having it trussed up. A handkerchief of coloured silk is their headdress.

At the village of Poschol, Dr. Clarke's sledge broke down; and this accident afforded him, he says, "a very interesting peep into the manners of the peasantry. The woman of the house was preparing a dinner for the members of her family, who were gone

* James, vol. ii. p. 138.

to church. It consisted only of a mess of pottage. Presently her husband, a boor, came in, attended by his daughters, with some small loaves of white bread, not larger than a pigeon's egg; these the priest had consecrated, and they placed them with great care before the *bogh*. Then the bowing and crossing commenced, and they began their dinner, all eating out of the same bowl. Dinner ended, they went regularly to bed, as if to pass the night there, crossing and bowing as before. Having slept about an hour, one of the young women, according to a custom constantly observed, called her father, and presented him with a pot of vinegar, or *quass*, the Russian beverage.* The man then rose, and a complete fit of crossing and bowing seemed to seize him, with interludes so inexpressibly characteristic and ludicrous, that it was very difficult to preserve gravity. The pauses of scratching and grunting, the apostrophes to his wife, to himself, and to his God, were such as Drunken Barnaby might have expressed in Latin, but which cannot be told in English."†

Vyshnei Voloshok, which gives its name to the canal that passes through the middle of the town, is a thriving place, situated on the River Tsna. Its stately, lively appearance forms a striking contrast to the miserable villages on this road. It contains upwards of 800 houses, many of which are of brick, three churches, two hospitals, and about 4000 inhabitants. There are three fairs in the year. Lat. 57°

* The flavour of *quass*, (properly *kvass*,) Dr. Clarke says, is like vinegar and water. "It looks thick, and is unpalatable to strangers, but, by use, we became fond of it." Dr. Lyall says, that, when well fermented, "it is an acidulous, pleasant, and wholesome beverage."

† Clarke's Travels, vol. i. p. 45.

35′ 24″ N., long. 52° 55′ E. of Paris. It is 422 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 298 from Moscow.

In this and other parts of the great road between St. Petersburgh and Moscow, Mr. James was struck with the uncommon activity and extent of the transport trade. We seldom, he says, "met fewer than from four to six caravans daily, consisting of strings of twenty or thirty single-horsed carts, carrying half a tun each." They were in motion at all times and in all parts; so that whenever a plain was open to the view, "they appeared like ants crawling over the surface of the earth." Those on their route to St. Petersburgh were carrying thither the produce either of the immediate neighbourhood, or of the southern districts,—tallow, leather, bristles, hides, &c. Those returning from St. Petersburgh, carried sugar, coffee, logwood, and other articles for dyeing: a few of them were laden with English lead, which, Mr. James was informed, could be purchased at a cheaper rate than the metal brought from the Siberian mines.

Torshok, (or Torjok,) on the banks of the Tvertza, seventy-one versts from Vyshnei Voloshok, a large, straggling place, with no fewer than twenty churches, is famous for its holy spring, which attracts pilgrims from all parts, and for a large manufacture of Russian leather: this is tanned with oak bark in general, and coloured with cochineal, a perfume being added by the use of a certain oil, the nature of which is kept a secret. The town is described by Mr. James as pretty; the country is wild and bare. It is in lat. 57° 56′ N., long. 55° 35′ E. of Paris. The era of its foundation is uncertain; but the convent of St. Boris and St. Gleb is said to have been founded by St. Ephrem, as far back as the eleventh century, at which period it had already become a populous place.

It was then a dependency of Novogorod, and a frontier town of that republic, on the side of the principality of Tver, which has exposed it to repeated ravages by contending armies. On the fall of Novogorod, it became a dependency of Moscow. At length, after having been, at various times, sacked and pillaged, destroyed by fire, and devastated by pestilence, it was rebuilt in the reign of Catherine II., and finally annexed to the Government of Tver. It is now a place of some trade, and has, like Valdai, three fairs in the year: the population is estimated at 10,000 souls. At this place, Mr. James first observed an approach to the Oriental costume in the dress of the women, which consists of a small, double-horned coif, and a long, white shawl enveloping the person from head to foot. Underneath this is worn a habit, fitted to the body, like a gown, and gorgeously ornamented, even among the lower classes; it is coloured blue or red, bordered with broad stripes of variegated lace, with open sleeves, and a profusion of foil and beads. The men were generally dressed in red shirts, worn over blue or white trowsers, their legs bound with thick rings of woollen or rags, and with shoes of linden bark. A hatchet, carried in the girdle, completes the portrait.

TVER.

SIXTY-THREE versts from Torjok, is Tver, the capital of the government of that name, advantageously situated on the lofty banks of the Volga, (in lat. 57° 35′ 24″ N., long. 52° 55′ E. of Paris,) near the confluence of two of its tributaries, the Tvertza and the Tmaka, which enter it on opposite sides. A

bridge of boats, 550 feet in length, thrown across this noble river, connects the two parts of the city, which has a grand and wealthy appearance. It ranks, indeed, in the regularity of its streets and buildings, next to St. Petersburgh and Moscow. Besides the cathedral, erected in 1687, it contains thirty-four churches, two monasteries and a nunnery, three hospitals, a beautiful building called the "Prince's Palace," an archiepiscopal palace,* two tolerable inns, kept by foreigners,† other public buildings belonging to the local government, a theatre, good barracks, a bazar with handsome piazzas, and above 200 stone houses. The population is estimated at 15,000.‡ There are several endowed seminaries here, and other charitable institutions, and numerous shops and

* The archbishop's palace, Captain Cochrane says, resembles an English workhouse. The *ci-devant* archiepiscopal palace, however, is that which was was appropriated for the Grand Dutchess of Oldenburg and her consort.—See VSEVOLOJSKY'S *Dict.*

† When Dr. Clarke passed through Tver, in 1800, the only inn was kept by Milanese,—"a vagrant tribe," he adds, "whose industry and enterprise carry them from the Lake of Como to the remotest regions of the earth. I have seen them in all countries, even in Lapland."

‡ In Vsevolojsky's Dictionary, published at Moscow in 1813, Tver is stated to contain only 27 churches, two convents, and 10,000 inhabitants. If the information given in the text, on the authority of Captain Cochrane, may be depended upon, the population would seem to have increased a third in eight years, which is prodigious. Seven churches and a monastery appear to have been erected since 1812. "The first circumstance," says Capt. C., "which attracted my notice upon reaching Tver, was at the gate, where an impost of *three large stones* is levied upon every horse that passes. These are converted to the paving of the city; nor will the tax appear either slight or useless in a country where stones are not very abundant." A young Frenchman, who had been five times wounded in the battle of Borodino, had settled at Tver as a teacher of his native tongue, and accompanied the Captain in his rambles here.

manufactories. Its principal wealth is owing to the trade it enjoys as an *entrepôt*, especially of articles conveyed overland to Riga. Immense quantities of grain are also exported hence for the capital, by the Russian Government. When Captain Cochrane was there, in 1820, 200 barges were lying off the city, loaded with that article, and with several millions of eggs. The average number of barges which pass by this town, is generally computed at 2,600. The boats employed on this river are singular alike in their construction, rigging, and management. The frequent shoals in the Volga and the other rivers which form this long internal navigation, render it necessary to make them flat-bottomed; they are constructed with new planks; these shrink, and the interstices are filled up, sometimes with thin slips of wood cramped with iron, and sometimes merely with tow. The rudder is a ponderous machine, and has a very singular appearance; the tiller is from 30 to 40 feet long; and the pilot who turns it, stands upon a scaffold at that distance from the stern. The rudder itself consists of a broad piece of timber, floating astern twelve or fifteen feet, and fastened to the tiller by a pole which descends perpendicularly into the water. These boats are generally provided with one mast, which, in the largest, may equal a frigate's mainmast. "The weight of the mat sail," Captain Cochrane says, "must be prodigious, having no fewer than 160 breadths in it; and yet, the facility with which it is managed, will bear comparison with that of the Yankees, with their boom mainsail in their fore-and-aft clippers. They are generally worked by from fifteen to forty people." The vessels are of all sizes, from that of a canoe to 1,000 tons. They are built

only for one voyage; and, on their arrival at St. Petersburgh, are taken to pieces and sold for fuel.*

Tver is a very ancient city. The original fortress was built in 1182, by the Great Duke of Vladimir, to protect his territories from the invasions of the people of Novogorod. Another citadel was built in 1240, and the foundation of a new town laid, which rapidly increased in population and wealth, so as to become the metropolis of an independent sovereignty. It was made an episcopal city in 1271. In 1490, it was annexed to the other dominions of Russia, and it has never since been dismembered. In the reign of the Grand Duke Alexander Michaelovitch, a massacre of the Tâtars took place here, when a tragical scene was exhibited, resembling that of the Sicilian Vespers. But such atrocious deeds are no extraordinary occurrence in the Russian annals.

The country in the neighbourhood of Tver, Mr. Coxe states, produces, in abundant crops, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, hemp, and flax, and all sorts of vegetables. Its forests yield oak, birch, alder, poplar, mountain-ash, pines, firs, and junipers. Among the animal population are found elks, bears, wolves, and foxes, wild goats and hares; also, badgers, martens, weasels, ermines, ferrets, squirrels, and marmots. Mr. Coxe gives as the ornithological catalogue, eagles and falcons, cranes, herons, swans, wild geese and

* In order to prevent the excessive waste of timber arising from the general custom of forming planks with the axe, (which is followed not only by the peasants, but also by the shipwrights,) orders were issued, that each vessel passing by Tver, in which there was one plank fashioned by the hatchet, should pay a fine of 6*l*. By a strict enforcement of this penalty, which in the first year amounted to 6000*l*., the practice was put an end to in the course of four years, and the use of the saw introduced among the Russian shipwrights.

ducks, partridges, quails, woodcocks, and snipes; also, crows, ravens, magpies, blackbirds, sparrows, and starlings; and, among the songsters, nightingales, linnets, larks, and yellow-hammers. The fish which are caught in the Volga, are salmon, sterlet, tench, pike, perch, groundling, gudgeons, and sometimes, but rarely, sturgeon and beluga. The sterlet of the Volga, so celebrated among Russian epicures, can be obtained in this town at all seasons of the year. This fish, which is supposed to be peculiar to the northern parts of the globe, is a species of sturgeon, distinguished by its smaller size, (those of the Volga being seldom more than two feet long, those of the Oby and Irtish about three feet,) and by its colour: it is highly esteemed for its flavour and delicacy, and the finest caviare is made from its roe. They are sometimes caught in the Gulf of Finland and in the Baltic; but these are supposed to have been stray fish.

About half way between Tver and Moscow is the small town of Klinn, which is not otherwise remarkable than as being the ancient patrimony of the reigning house of Romanof. It is, however, the head town of the district, and contains four churches and upwards of 1,000 inhabitants. It stands on both banks of a little river named the Sestra. The country in this part has a pleasing appearance, immense herds and flocks, with well-peopled villages, greeting the eye in every direction. No other place occurs of any importance, before the rising towers and spires of Moscow are descried, at the distance of six versts from the city. The surrounding country is flat and open, and this ancient capital of the Muscovite, spreading over an immense district, equals, according to Dr. Clarke, in the majesty of its appearance from a distance, Rome itself. But he saw it before the

French invasion. We shall have to present to our readers a description, first, of the Moscow that was, and then, of Moscow as it is.*

MOSCOW.

ST. PETERSBURGH has been styled the Northern Palmyra. If Moscow can be named in association with the Roman metropolis, it must be styled the Tartarian Rome. Sir Robert Ker Porter, who visited it in 1808, describes its appearance as "the most curious and *un-European*" of any city he ever beheld. "If," says Mr. Coxe, who was there in 1784, "I was struck with the singularity of Smolensko, I was all astonishment at the immensity and variety of Moscow. A city so irregular, so uncommon, so extraordinary, and so contrasted, had never before claimed my astonishment. The streets are, in general, exceedingly long and broad; some of them are paved; others, particularly those in the suburbs, are formed with trunks of trees, or are boarded with planks like the floor of a room. Wretched hovels are blended

* The following itinerary will, we believe, be found accurate:

	Versts.
From St. Petersburgh—	
To Tsarskoselo	22
— Novogorod	158
— Valdai	159
— Vyshnei Voloshok	93
— Torjok	71
— Tver	63
— Klinn	83
— Moscow	81
	730=487 miles.

Captain Cochrane makes the distance from Tver to Moscow 168 versts, or about 96 miles, which he *walked* within 32 hours! It is performed in winter with a *khabitka* in 15 hours; about seven miles (nearly 11 versts) an hour.

with large palaces; cottages of one story stand next to the most superb and stately mansions; many brick structures are covered with wooden tops; some of the wooden houses are painted; others have iron doors and roofs. Numerous churches present themselves in every quarter, built in a peculiar style of architecture; some with domes of copper, others of tin, gilt or painted green, and many roofed with wood. In a word, some parts of this vast city have the appearance of a sequestered desert, other quarters that of a populous town; some of a contemptible village, others of a great capital. Moscow may be considered as a town built upon the Asiatic model, but gradually becoming more and more European; exhibiting, in its present state, a motley mixture of discordant architecture." The Prince de Ligne has happily expressed the same idea in a few words. "Moscow looks exactly as if three or four hundred great old *chateaus* had come to live together, each bringing along with it its own little attendant village of thatched cottages." Dr. Clarke, who visited it in 1800, thus describes the impressions made by its appearance on his first arrival. "Numerous spires glittering with gold, amidst burnished domes and painted palaces, appear in the midst of an open plain, for several versts before you reach the Petersburgh gate. Having passed, you look about and wonder what has become of the city, or where you are; and are ready to ask once more, How far is it to Moscow? They will tell you, this is Moscow. And you behold nothing but a wide and scattered suburb,—huts, gardens, pig-sties, brick walls, churches, dunghills, palaces, timber yards, warehouses, and a refuse, as it were, of materials sufficient to stock an empire with miserable towns and miserable villages. One might imagine, all the states of Europe and Asia

had sent a building, by way of representative, to Moscow; and under this impression, the eye is presented with deputies from all countries holding congress:—timber huts from regions beyond the Arctic; plastered palaces from Sweden and Denmark, not white-washed since their arrival; painted walls from the Tyrol; mosques from Constantinople; Tâtar temples from Bucharia; pagodas, pavilions, and virandas from China; cabarets from Spain; dungeons, prisons, and public offices from France; architectural ruins from Rome; terraces and trellices from Naples; and warehouses from Wapping. Having heard accounts of the immense population of Moscow, you wander through deserted streets. Passing suddenly towards the quarter where the shops are situated, you might walk upon the heads of thousands. The daily throng is there so immense, that, unable to force a passage through it, or assign any motive that might convene such a multitude, you ask the cause, and are told that it is always the same. Nor is the costume less various than the aspect of the buildings: Greeks, Turks, Tâtars, Cossacks, Chinese, Muscovites, English, French, Italians, Poles, Germans, all parade in the habits of their respective countries."

This heterogeneous mixture of the Asiatic and European styles of architecture and costumes, strikes the traveller both in St. Petersburgh and Moscow; but the Asiatic in the latter is more pure and greatly more predominant. Moscow is an ancient, St. Petersburgh a modern city. General and regular magnificence and beauty distinguish the one; the intermixture of glittering and gorgeous temples and palaces with the meanest hovels, distinguishes the other.

"The architecture exhibited in different parts of the Kremlin, in its palaces and churches, is unlike," continues Dr. Clarke, "any thing in Europe. It is

difficult to say from what country it has been principally derived. The architects were generally Italians; but the style is Tâtarian, Indian, Chinese, and Gothic. Here a pagoda, there an arcade! In some parts, richness and even elegance; in others, barbarism and decay. Taken altogether, it is a jumble of magnificence and ruin; old buildings repaired, and modern structures not completed; half-open vaults, and mouldering walls, and empty caves, amidst white-washed brick buildings, and towers and churches with glittering, gilded, or painted domes. In the midst of it, some devotees are daily seen entering a little mean structure, more like a stable than a church. This, they tell you, is the first place of Christian worship erected in Moscow. It was originally constructed of the trunks of trees, felled upon the spot, at the foundation of the city; but now it is of brick, built in imitation of the original wooden church. Its claims to antiquity cannot be great, as, according to accounts published in our own country, the whole city of Moscow was burned by the Tâtars of the Crimea, on the 24th of May, 1571: the old wooden church was probably then destroyed. There is nothing within the structure worthy of notice.

"The view of Moscow from the terrace in the Kremlin, near the spot where the artillery is preserved, would afford a fine subject for a panorama. The number of magnificent buildings, the domes, the towers, and spires, filling all the prospect, make it, perhaps, the most novel and interesting sight in Europe. All the wretched hovels and miserable wooden buildings, which appear in passing through the streets, are lost in the vast assemblage of magnificent edifices: among these, the Foundling Hospital is particularly conspicuous. Below the walls of th-

Kremlin, the Moskva, already become a river of importance, is seen flowing towards the Volga. The new promenade forming on its banks, immediately beneath the fortress, is a superb work, and promises to rival the famous quay at St. Petersburgh. It is paved with large flags, and is continued from the stone bridge to another, peculiarly called the Moskva Bridge, fenced with a light, but strong iron palisade, and stone pillars, executed in very good taste. A flight of stairs leads from this walk to the river, where the ceremony of the benediction of the water takes place. Another flight of wooden steps leads through the walls of the Kremlin, to an area within the fortress."

Mr. James visited Moscow in June 1814, when the traces of the conflagration which had arrested the progress of the French two years before, were still visible. "It was from the road, as it passes under the turrets of the Petrovsky Palace," he says, "that we first beheld the thousands of domes and steeples that yet glittered among the relics of Moscow; and a short hour brought us to the barriers. At our first entrance, only a few occasional symptoms of the conflagration occurred, and little that was of a nature to correspond to the gloomy appearance which we had been led to expect. But, as we advanced, the quarters of the *Slabode*, or fauxbourg, where wood had chiefly been used in building, exhibited destruction in its fullest extent,—for the most part, a *campagne rase*. Now and then, the shell of a house was seen standing in a blank space; or here and there, a few brick stoves yet remaining, pointed out the spot where a dwelling once had been. Moving onwards, we crossed the avenues of the boulevards: the trees were in full leaf and beauty, seeming to vary the view only to heighten

its melancholy aspect. Leaving this, we passed to the central parts of the town, that were constructed with more durable materials, exhibiting occasionally a richness and elegance of exterior that must have equalled, if not surpassed, the architectural magnificence of the most beautiful towns of Europe. But all was now in the same forlorn condition; street after street greeted the eye with perpetual ruin; disjointed columns, mutilated porticoes, broken cupolas, walls of rugged stucco, black, discoloured with the stains of fire, and open on every side to the sky, formed a hideous contrast to the glowing pictures which travellers had drawn of the grand and sumptuous palaces of Moscow. The cross lanes looked, even at this interval, as if unused to the sound of the human tread. The grass had sprung up amidst the mouldering fragments scattered over the pavements; while a low smoke, issuing perhaps from some obscure cellar corner, gave the only indications of human habitation, and seemed to make desolation visible.

"There are few towns whose quarters present a more simple plan of distribution. The ancient Kremlin and Kitaigorod are situated on a central eminence above the river Moskva; and around these, as a nucleus, the circles of the Beloigorod, the Semlianigorod, and the *Slabode*, or fauxbourg, are severally discernible, marking by their lines the growth of the place in successive eras. The Kitaigorod, or Tâtar-town, besides some religious buildings, contains within its walls the public exchange and the chief houses of trade. All these had been completely gutted by the fire, but the spirit of the place still remained: shops and stalls, and tents of every denomination, were erected amidst the ruins; and the chief street was even now the theatre of much bustle and activity. The

Kremlin is a large walled circle, containing many old churches, as well as the public offices and apartments of state; and hither we made a daily visit, as to a point that afforded the only specimen of the ancient magnificence of the capital of the grand dukes and the czars. It stood uninjured amidst the flames of the late conflagration; but the barbarous fury of Bonaparte attacked whatever Russian piety had spared; and with unutterable malignity, he marked out for devastation some of the fairest portions of this proud citadel. The most peremptory command was given to the detachment occupying the Kremlin, after his departure, to discharge their orders with despatch; the mines were prepared, and at two o'clock on the last night of their stay, this horrid purpose was carried into execution. By the first two explosions, part of the walls and one of the towers towards the river were destroyed; by the third, the church of St. Nicholas and the four great bells of Moscow were blown up with tremendous violence; at the same moment, the lofty tower of Ivan Veliki, the first of the czars, was rent from the top to its base, and the cross of the cupola crowning its summit, buried in ruin below. The fourth shock was by far the most dreadful; the walls of the arsenal, which were upwards of three yards in thickness, with a part of the gate of St. Nicholas, and several adjoining pinnacles, were at once blown into the air, a concussion succeeding, that shook the whole city to its foundations.

"A short time previously to the breaking out of the war, a ukase was issued by the emperor, ordering three and thirty churches at Moscow to be pulled down; by no means an unreasonable step, since the total number in the city and suburbs amounted to two thousand, and many of them were in a dilapidated

state. The common people, however, very generally entertained the idea, that their late calamities were owing to this act of impiety. The emperor has now vowed to erect a new church at Moscow, in commemoration of the deliverance of Russia, for which a design has been given by Mr. Wilbers, formerly a pupil of the academy at St. Petersburgh. A column, formed out of the cannon taken from the French, forms part of the design. The imperial palace, which stands on a point commanding the whole town, was the residence, as before stated, of Bonaparte. But even these walls, that had formed his abode, were given to destruction by his orders, and now shewed themselves in the most forlorn condition, stripped of every article, and completely gutted from top to bottom. The same scene of waste was exhibited in an interesting antique edifice, containing the chamber of the throne. As the public hall of audience at the coronation of the czars* and emperors, it had been often made the scene of festivities in this most pompous and splendid court. But now, not a vestige of ancient ornament could any where be traced; the activity of devastation had been great, and scarcely a beam or a stone rested one on the other. The other parts of the Kremlin remained untouched, and it was impossible to conceive a more imposing spectacle than was here afforded. A high terrace overhung the walls towards the river, at the extremity of which, to the left, appeared the fantastical structure of the Trinity Church, and the awe-commanding portals of the

* "The title czar was borne by only two sovereigns of Russia. The word is a Slavonic translation of the Tatar khan, or king. In their translation of the Old Testament, it constantly occurs in this sense, the Czar Solomon, or Czar David, being the ordinary terms in use."

Holy Gate, through which every passenger walks bare-headed. At the other end, was a cluster of domes rising from the church of St. Nicholas, that of the Assumption, and the chapel and palace of the czars, with the lofty temple of Ivan Veliki towering far above them all, and reflecting the beams of the sun from a globe of gold. The palace of the czars does not boast an antiquity of more than two hundred years; but it is an edifice raised with princely costliness in the carved work with which that style abounds. This was one of the most shewy examples of the gorgeous architecture of the Kremlin, though the whole circle offered an assemblage of bright, gay colours, and a display of gaud and richness that vied with 'the wealth of Ormus and of Ind.' The cupolas and roofs were gilt, or stained green, or red, the walls and towers covered with glazed tiles of blue, and white, and yellow; in other parts adorned with storied paintings from Holy Writ; while a *mélange* was seen on every side, of pear-shaped domes, Tâtar battlements, Gothic tracery, Grecian columns, the star, the crescent, and the cross. Looking below, we beheld the stream of the Moskva, winding its course amidst the streets and houses of the town, all indeed now in ruin, but still interspersed with many a glittering steeple, with cottage, garden, and palace intermixed, and offering to view the endless variety of a Russian city. This scene was backed by an extensive landscape on the west, dotted with country houses and monasteries, and surmounted by the long, gloomy line of the Sparrow hills, over which the French army first shewed themselves, before the work of abomination was begun."*

* James's Journal, vol. ii. pp. 171—3, 196—204.

In the year 1818, when Dr. Macmichael was at Moscow, although many vestiges of the conflagration were still visible, "the great advance made toward obliterating the traces of disaster were almost inconceivable." Within the precincts of the Kremlin, every building had been renovated. The court was at this time established in the ancient capital of the czars. "The Empress Mother occupied the *bel étage* of one of the chief palaces; and the standard of Alexander waved over the former residence of Napoleon." The Kitaigorod, as well as the greater part of the Semlianoigorod and the Slabode, appeared entirely rebuilt; but the palaces of the nobles remained much in the same state in which they had been left by the fire, and there was no likelihood of their being speedily repaired. Captain Cochrane, however, who passed through Moscow in 1820, speaks of the city as even then only half rebuilt, and the streets half finished, brick and mortar every where incommoding the passenger. "In every other respect than that of population," he says, "I found Moscow the same as in Clarke's time, beautiful and rich, grotesque and absurd, magnificent and mean. Although much of the singular appearance of the Kremlin has been obviated in the restored buildings, yet, it is still far from regular. The new imperial palace is wholly undeserving the name; and only that a building is wanted for the use of the imperial family, and that there was a vacancy upon the site on which it stands, it would call loudly for another fire-brand."

The latest as well as the fullest account of Moscow, is furnished by Dr. Lyall, who resided for some years in Russia as domestic physician to the Countess Orlof Chesmenska, and left that capital so lately as 1823.

"Ever since the departure of the court in 1818," he informs us, "the renovation, improvement, and embellishment of the metropolis have been carried on with astonishing energy and success, and still continue to advance with rapid strides. The most remarkable recent improvements are, the formation of Alexander's Garden, a magnificent promenade; the replacement of a desert triangular space near the Smith's Bridge, formerly a receptacle of filth and abomination, by regular streets and enormous piles of edifices; the levelling of the earthen ramparts and fortifications round the eastern walls of the Kitaigorod, and the substitution of streets and markets in their room; the embellishment of the north front of the tribunals and of the shops along the course of the now invisible Neglinnaya; the almost total renewal of that mighty mass, the Petrovskoi Theatre; the repairs of the sumptuous mansions of the nobles; and the arrangement of new places, new streets, and new markets. By the burning of innumerable small, sombre, wooden houses and hovels, and by the superior and tasteful manner in which most of the city is rebuilt, Moscow has greatly changed its appearance. That wonderful mixture of magnificent palaces and paltry huts, so often mentioned by foreigners, though still to be remarked in a few places, does not so powerfully strike the eye of the stranger. In one word, Moscow is daily losing her Asiatic features, and assimilating herself to the other capitals of Europe. From this observation, however, I am happy to add, that the Kremle must be exempted: its ancient singularity and grandeur are preserved complete."*

* Lyall's Character of the Russians, &c. 4to. pp. 525, 6.

Taken as a whole, says Dr. Lyall, the Kremle* "is one of the most singular, beautiful, and magnificent objects I have ever beheld. Its commanding situation on the banks of the Moskva river, its high and venerable white walls, with numerous battlements, variously coloured towers, and steeples; the number and the magnificence of some of its fine edifices, with their differently painted roofs; the variety of its cathedrals, churches, monasteries, and belfries, with their almost innumerable domes, gilt, tin-plated, or green; — indeed, the whole picture presents at the same time a varied unity, — a consonance and incongruity of objects, — a contrast of ancient and modern works of art and taste, — a beauty, grandeur, and magnificence indescribable and altogether unique. To be conceived, it must be seen; and when seen, it never fails to excite astonishment and delight." All travellers agree, that the view of the city from this place, especially from St. Ivan's tower, surpasses every other, both in singularity and splendour. Towards the south, are seen a crowd of churches with their innumerable domes and belfries; a variety of palaces, private mansions, and public edifices, especially the immense Foundling Hospital; open spaces, fields, gardens, market-places; the winding Moskva river, with its quays and romantic banks. In the distance, are seen the Sparrow hills, clothed with dark wood, and here and there, a detached village, monastery, or church, in the midst of beautiful and varied environs, diversified by hill and dale, woods, and cultivated fields. The view towards the west takes in more of the

* So, Dr. Lyall tells us, the word should be written, being derived from the Tâtar word *krim* or *krem*, a fortress. The citadels of Novogorod, Casan, Nijni-Novogorod, and Susdal, bear the same appellation.

Kremlin and its walls, and an immense portion of the city, with more level environs. On the north-east, several large and splendid public buildings are seen, and, beyond them, romantic ground on the banks of a small river, and an immense extent of the city, varied by open spaces, gardens, markets, and the broken and elevated banks of the Moskva river. The environs in this direction are very fine, but in general more level, woody, and gloomy than those which the view from the south comprises.

The Kremlin is situated on the north side of the Moskva, which, in this part, bends into the form of a crescent. Its shape is triangular, the circumference about two miles. A high wall surrounds it, strongly built of brick, faced at the foundation with stone. There are five gates; at four of these there are steeples, and there are numerous watch-towers. In passing through one of the gates, called *Spaskiya Vorotui*, or the Gate of Our Saviour, every male, from the sovereign to the peasant, takes off his hat, and remains uncovered: if a stranger neglects this, a sentinel directs or forces him to comply. Of the turrets with which the walls of the Kremlin are ornamented, almost all are of a square base and pyramidal elevation, yet exhibiting different styles of architecture. The most interesting is that immediately to the south of Our Saviour's Gate, on which was anciently suspended the alarm-bell, and from which the ancient sovereigns of Muscovy used to witness or superintend the infliction of punishments, and the celebration of festivals.

There are no regular streets in the Kremlin, but three open spaces called *plostchads*, or squares, of a very irregular shape, and abundance of room otherwise, for the numerous carriages and foot-passengers

with which, in summer, it is always crowded. The houses have in general stone foundations: in all cases, the superstructure consists of brick stuccoed and painted, generally in the most gaudy colours. None of the houses belong to private individuals; the whole being the property of the crown. Beside the government-offices, the Kremlin contains the palace, the senate-house, the arsenal, the imperial museum, and a number of cathedrals, churches, and monasteries, among which is the most splendid church in all Moscow, and the most sacred edifice in the empire, viz. the cathedral of the Assumption of the Virgin Mary. It was built in 1479, on the site of the original edifice, and exhibits a specimen of the Greco-Italian architecture of the fifteenth century. It is loaded with ornaments to a most curious and extravagant degree. On the walls are painted 249 full images, and 2,066 half-lengths and heads, many larger than nature. The quantity of gold leaf employed in embellishing it, is said to have amounted to 210,000 leaves. Images gaudily adorned, splendidly gilt and ornamented holy books, massy gold crosses of beautiful workmanship, rich episcopal vestments; in short, every article that can impress the observer with a striking idea of the magnificence and shew of the Greek service, are here to be seen in the greatest profusion. The lustres are particularly magnificent and costly. In the middle of the church is suspended a crown of massy silver, accompanied with forty-eight chandeliers, all of a single piece, and weighing nearly 3,000 lbs. There are also numerous candlesticks, "almost as high as a man," some of silver, others of copper silvered, holding candles "as thick as a man's leg."

The cathedral of St. Michael ranks next to this in

splendour and dignity. It is venerated by the Russians as the place where their sovereigns were formerly interred, while the cathedral of the Assumption is honoured by being the place where they are crowned. The bodies of the Russian sovereigns are contained in raised sepulchres, formed in the shape of a coffin. All the czars, from the time that Moscow became the seat of empire, to the close of the seventeenth century, (with the exception of one,) are here deposited. This cathedral was originally built in 1333; and after various repairs and alterations, it was put nearly in its present state by the Empress Catherine in 1772.

The palace of the czars, next to these two cathedrals, is the object most worthy of notice within the Kremlin. Dr. Lyall says, that this palace "is probably the most notable instance of constant change and renovation among all the large and more ancient edifices of Moscow:" in consequence of this, the descriptions given of it by travellers differ very widely, even when but a short time had elapsed between the periods of their respective visits. In the year 1820, it consisted of three parts; the ancient palace of the czars, the audience-chamber, and the new palace. The ancient palace was built by an Italian architect at the beginning of the sixteenth century; but the style of it is so singular, that it has been called Grecian, Gothic, Tâtar, and Hindoo. In the Belvidere are two small arched rooms, which were the czar's peculiar apartments. They communicated, by a narrow staircase, with an observatory, "a kind of royal police-box," where, at a certain fixed hour, the czar daily took his station, while crowds of supplicants assembled in the courts below, deposited their petitions upon a large stone adjoining the small church called

Spas na Baru. These petitions were brought to the sovereign, who examined them, and dictated the answers, which were in like manner laid on the same stone till the petitioners came to receive them. Peter the Great was born in the old palace. The new palace was originally built in 1748, by the Empress Elizabeth; but it has been repeatedly altered and enlarged. The Empress Catherine formed the project of erecting a most magnificent palace in the Kremlin. The plan was actually executed, and a superb model of it still exists in the Imperial Museum. This model, according to Dr. Clarke, is one of the most curious things in Moscow. "If the work had been completed," he remarks, "it would have been the wonder of the world. The architect who constructed the plan, was a Russian who had studied at Paris. This model cost 50,000 rubles. The expense necessary for the accomplishment of the undertaking, (as the architect Camporesi, who made the estimate, assured us,) would have been fifty millions of rubles. The calculation laid before the empress, stated the amount only at twenty millions. The work was begun, but, it is said, the falling in of a part of the foundation, determined the empress against its prosecution. The plan was, to unite the whole Kremlin, having a circumference of two miles, into one magnificent palace. Its triangular form, and the number of churches it contains, offered some difficulties; but the *model* was rendered complete. Its fronts are ornamented with ranges of beautiful pillars, according to different orders of architecture. Every part of it was finished in the most beautiful manner, even to the fresco painting on the ceiling of the rooms, and the colouring of the various marble columns intended to decorate the interior. It encloses a theatre and magnificent

apartments. Had the work been completed, it would have surpassed the Temple of Solomon, the Propylæum of Amasis, the Villa of Adrian, or the Forum of Trajan."

None of the apartments of the new palace are very large; but they are furnished in a most superb and expensive manner. "Inlaid floors of various figures and colours, of oak and other wood; beautiful Wilton and Russian carpets; tapestry-covered walls of all shades; immensely large looking-glasses, some of which have many flaws, and others are joined; tables of mahogany, of Siberian beech, of nat-wood, stained and unstained, gilt and ungilt, of marble, of imitation *lapis lazuli*, and of malachite; chairs of the same woods, plain or covered with silk, and gilded; large crystal and bronze lustres, and a crowd of other ornaments, are all found here." The audience-chamber, originally built at the close of the fifteenth century, was burnt in the year 1812; but it is now completely repaired and fitted up after its former style: its architecture is very simple. The *Granovitaya Palata*, or square hall, from which the whole edifice takes its name, is a room about sixty-five feet square. "In its centre rises an enormous square and highly gilt pillar, which loses itself by expansion into the arches, and with them supports the ceiling: the vaults are four in number, and each is crossed by a gilt twisted stucco cord, which has a good effect. Over each window are the arms of three of the governments of Russia. The walls are covered with crimson velvet, bronze chandeliers, and gilded ornaments, and the floor is overlaid with red cloth. Numerous lustres are suspended from the ceiling. The base of the central pillar is surrounded with shelves, on which, on great occasions, are arranged the gold and silver

utensils and vessels belonging to the court. The throne on the south side is equally elegant with that in the palace. The room is disfigured by a number of seats like an orchestra, in one of the chambers. Opposite the throne and near the roof, is a semi-lunar window, from whence the imperial family, when not present in the hall, could observe the ceremonies after the coronation in the cathedral of the Assumption, or witness the reception of ambassadors by his majesty. When the court is at Moscow, balls are frequently given in this hall. On occasion of a ball in 1818, it was illuminated by 3,500 wax candles, and presented a most magnificent appearance."

Among the numerous churches included within the Kremlin, that of St. Philip is distinguished as containing the patriarchal treasury, the riches of which consist of manuscripts and books, mitres and sacerdotal dresses and ornaments, vessels for the preparation of the holy oil and relics of saints. The most valuable manuscripts are those of the Slavonic New Testament, which date as far back as the eleventh and twelfth centuries. Dr. Lyall was shewn "a small parchment volume a good deal sullied, said to be the Gospel of St. Luke in his own hand-writing"—in what language and character, he does not state; perhaps the Slavonic also! There is a copy of the Evangelists in Slavonian, written by the Tsarevna Tatiana Michailovna, daughter of the Tsar Michail Phedorovitch. Among the sacred vessels are a large gilt *rukomoinik** (hand-basin), and an "enormously large

* For this word, Dr. Lyall says, we have no precisely corresponding word in English. "The Russians deem it unclean to wash with or even to touch the same water twice. On this account, from the rude earthen vessel suspended by a rope in the yard, or near the door of his house, which the peasant pours out in washing

shallow basin for the ceremony of washing the Apostles' feet." The vessels for the preparation of the holy oil, consist of two large silver kettles or boilers, gilt inside, two feet and a half in diameter, which, together with silver stirrers and ladles, were presented to the holy synod by the Empress Catherine II. Between these boilers stands a large silver receiver, on the cover of which is a representation of Samuel anointing Saul. This also was a present of the empress. They weigh altogether upwards of 700 lbs. From the receiver, the oil is emptied into sixteen elegant silver vases presented to the synod by the Emperor Paul. The "holy oil" is made only once a year with great ceremonies.

The belfry of Ivan Velikii, or Great John, stands nearly at an equal distance from the cathedrals of the Assumption and St. Michael. It is visible from almost every part of the city, and to a great distance on the approach to it from the east, south, and west, and was used by the French as an observatory and signal-post. They attempted to blow it up before their departure in 1812, and the tower was rent from top to bottom; but it is now completely repaired. From the bottom to the top of the cross, it is 269 feet and a half high. The number of the bells is 33, many of which have inscriptions and peculiar names; Dr. Lyall

himself, to the brass, silver, or gold *rukomoinik* in the dwelling of the merchant, or in the palace of the nobleman, every habitation is furnished with a cistern of water. The cistern is generally made of brass, except among the peasants, and is placed against the wall, with a basin below it. It has a mechanical invention, so that by pushing up a plug, you empty as little or as much water as you please, and wash yourself with it during its fall into a large brass basin called a *taz*. Now it is becoming more common for a man-servant to pour the water from a crystal bottle upon his master's hands."

enumerates ten; the smallest of which weighs 7000 pounds English, and the largest 124,289. On festivals, they are tolled almost without intermission, and with but little variations, from an early hour till the evening; the peasantry, and the Russians generally, being extremely fond of Ivan Velikii's music. The great bell of Moscow, the wonder of the world, stands in an immense cavity on the east side of this belfry. In 1812, the ruins of the belfry fell into the cavity, and covered the bell. When the court arrived at Moscow in 1817, it was uncovered and again surrounded with a rail. Dr. Lyall took great pains to ascertain the history of this bell, and its exact size and weight. According to him, it originally contained 8000 *poods* weight, and was cast in 1654. Being destroyed by fire, it was recast, and 2000 additional poods of metal added to it in 1734.* At this time, it was actually suspended over the place where it was cast, at no great height.* In 1737, the wooden edifice erected over it took fire, and the bell becoming hot, was most probably cracked in consequence of cold water being

* Dr. Clarke roundly asserts, that the bell was never suspended; that the Russians might as well attempt to suspend a first-rate line-of battle ship, with all her guns and stores. The first bell, however, which contained 8000 poods weight of metal, is expressly stated by Korb, who visited Moscow in 1698, to have been suspended by a great number of beams and cross-beams; and it was rung by forty or fifty men, one half on each side, who, by means of ropes, pulled the clapper. An inscription on the bell itself states, that it began to announce Divine Service A.D. 1668, and continued to be used till 1701, when, in consequence of a great fire in the Kremle, it was damaged. Whether the second bell, cast from the first, with the addition of 2000 poods of copper, in 1734, was ever suspended, appears doubtful, but certainly not impossible. Hanway states, that it had been hung, and that the sound of it amazed and deafened, rather than delighted the inhabitants. He estimates the weight at 443,772lbs. English; value, at 3s. per pound, 65,681*l*. It may justly be styled the *tsar kolokol*, the emperor of bells.

thrown upon it to extinguish the flames. An inscription on it, recording its second casting, expressly states its weight at 10,000 poods, equal to 360,000 English pounds. According to the measurement of Mr. Murray, an English engineer, the height, if it had been a *full* cast, would have been twenty-one feet; it is actually only twenty feet seven inches. The greatest diameter at the mouth of the bell, is twenty-two feet eight inches. The top of the bell, or double ring, measures three feet one inch. Dr. Clarke makes the circumference sixty-seven feet four inches; the perpendicular height, twenty-one feet four and a half inches; and the thickness of the metal, in its stoutest part, twenty-three inches. The top of the crack is five feet seven inches from the ground. The clapper, which lies at the foot of Ivan Velikii, is fourteen feet long. On festivals, the peasants visit this bell as they would resort to a sanctuary, regarding it as an act of devotion, crossing themselves all the way as they descend and ascend the steps.

Among the wonders of the Kremlin, the Great Gun must not be omitted. It is placed on the south side of the grand entrance to the arsenal. It is sixteen feet long, and the diameter of its calibre nearly three feet. There are also eight other large guns arranged round the Kremlin, and 900 cannon and howitzers taken from the French, surround the arsenal.

The Imperial Museum in the Kremlin contains little worth notice. Costly robes, especially a vest twelve yards long, worn by Catherine II. during her coronation, the crowns of conquered kingdoms, the long ivory comb with which the czars formerly combed their beards, the code of laws of the several provinces of the empire, collected by the father of Peter the Great, a toilette of amber, and some national curiosi-

ties, are the objects of most interest and importance. There are also some curious and characteristic memorials of Peter the Great: among these are, a pair of enormous boots, funnel-shaped at the top; an immense tankard; his pocket-book; his portrait, which was worn by Prince Mentchikof; his crystal cup; some pieces of mechanism of his own execution, in turnery; a crystal cup, with a ducat embedded in its substance of the same year in which the sovereign himself blew the cup; a model of a ship in silver gilt, which was sent from Holland to that emperor, &c.

The alarm-bell, suspended in a tower before the Kremlin, was brought from Novogorod when that city was conquered in 1477. There it had been used as a signal for the people of that republic to assemble from all quarters, in the event of foreign danger or intestine tumult; and they regarded its removal to Moscow as the sure prelude of their departing liberty.

The second grand division of Moscow, the Kitaigorod, or Chinese-town,* is larger than the Kremlin. It contains the university, the printing-house of the synod, several public buildings, the tradesmen's shops, and the only street in the city in which the houses are contiguous. Its form is that of an oblong square; all the sides are flanked by walls, furnished with bat-

* This is supposed to be a Tatar appellation, but its etymology is doubtful. Voltaire, without giving his authority, says, "*La partie appellée la ville Chinoise, oules raretés de la Chine s'étaillent.*" This is probably nothing more than a random conjecture. *Kitai*, Dr. Lyall says, certainly means China in Russ, whence the word Cathay. On the other hand, the appellation originated with the Tatars; and there are said to be two other towns of the same name, one in the Ukraine, and one in Podolia. Query, whether the word may not mean the East, and Khitai be the east country,—Khitaigorod, the east quarter, *i. e.* east of the Kremle?

tlements, towers, and gates. The Kitaigorod is the most European part of Moscow. One of the most striking objects in this division, is the *Krasnaya Plostchad*, or Beautiful Place; one of the largest, handsomest, and most singular squares in Europe, or perhaps in the world. It is 1260 feet long, and its greatest breadth 434 feet. During the summer, it is one of the chief promenades. The markets and bargaining shops in this division of the city, exhibit a novel and entertaining spectacle; and of these, the dead-fish market is certainly one of the greatest curiosities in Moscow. No sooner has the winter so far advanced that the sledge-roads are passable, than a large supply of fish is regularly brought from Archangel, and from a great lake in the Government of Novogorod. These are piled up like walls, snow serving to fill the interstices. The sterlet, sturgeon, and beluga, or great sturgeon, are always in great supply, and cheap. In March 1819, Dr. Lyall saw, in this market, a beluga of immense size; it weighed 2450 pounds English, and the head alone 320 pounds. It had been caught in the Dwina. The bargaining shops form a great range of buildings on the east side of the Beautiful place. In Moscow, as in nearly all the towns of Russia, the principal shops resemble the bazars of the East; they are all together, and the merchants live at a distance, coming to their shops early in the morning, and returning at dusk to their houses. There are regular markets in different parts of the city, where all kinds of articles may be purchased; but when a person wishes to have a choice, or to buy a variety of articles at the same time, he generally goes to the bargaining shops. The total number of these is said to be 6000. Besides being

doubly locked at night, they are all sealed up, a piece of cord or thread being twined round the padlock, and soft wax with an impression affixed over the ends or on the door. A Russian, according to Dr. Lyall, will not readily break a seal; this he deems particularly sacred. To break a lock is, in his opinion, of less consequence.

The Beloigorod, or White-town, the third grand division of Moscow, nearly encircles the two divisions already described; it derives its name from a white wall with which it was formerly enclosed, but of which scarcely a vestige now remains. In its stead, a spacious and elegant boulevard has been formed, which adds much to the beauty of the city, and affords a fine promenade for the inhabitants. In 1787, when Mr. Coxe visited Moscow, this division of the city exhibited a grotesque groupe of churches, convents, palaces, brick and wooden houses, and mean hovels. The hovels were consigned to the flames in 1812; very few wooden houses are left, and no more are allowed to be erected. This division contains many fine palaces of the nobles, six monasteries, several churches, the university, the foundling-hospital, the Bible Society house, the great provision-market, and the fruit-market. The university was built on its present site in 1786, by the Empress Catherine II. Lectures are here given on Russian law, the Latin language, arithmetic, mathematics, and natural philosophy, ancient and modern history, moral philosophy, medicine, the Pandects, logic and metaphysics, botany and anatomy, and the French and German languages. There are a great number of professors and teachers, and the expense of the establishment is immense; yet, there are only 100 students, who are admitted at the public cost.

Of the societies in Moscow which have for their object the advancement of scientific knowledge, the Imperial Society of Natural History, which meets in this division of the city, deserves particular notice. The design of this institution was, to form a *depôt* for the discoveries in natural history made in this vast empire. It was established in 1804; and when the French took Moscow in 1812, it was very flourishing. Unfortunately, however, the museum in which all its collections were deposited, was burned. But its members are exerting themselves with unabated ardour to repair the loss, and the institution promises fair to be of great service to the cause of science in Russia.

Perhaps, no building erected since the calamity of 1812, excites more astonishment, even in Moscow, than the Exercise-house, erected in 1817. This enormous edifice is 560 feet in length, the breadth at each end is 168 feet, and the height from 42 to 43½ feet. The mechanical construction of the roof is the most surprising part of it: although of such length, breadth, and weight of materials, it rests merely on the walls. In "the garret" of this building, the number of beams and cross-beams which present themselves, remind the visiter of an enormous man-of-war on the stocks.

The Foundling Hospital was established in 1763, and is supported by voluntary contributions, legacies, &c. It is an immense institution, though still unfinished. The policy and humanity of such institutions is very questionable; but, if they are to exist, none can be better constituted in all respects than this at Moscow.* Both sexes are taught reading, writing,

* Before this institution was established at Moscow, infanticide is said to have been dreadfully prevalent. The number of *daily* admissions, Dr Lyall says, is great. The lying-in house connected

and arithmetic; besides which, the boys are occasionally employed in the different manufactures, and, at the age of fourteen, are taught some trade; and the girls learn to knit, net, sew, spin, weave lace, and perform all kinds of household work. Such of either sex as display superior talents, are taught the French and German languages, music, drawing, dancing, &c. At twenty years old, a sum of money is given them to enable them to begin business; and they are vested with the privilege of following their trade in any part of the empire,—a very great one in a country where all the peasants are slaves, and where none can leave their villages without the permission of their master. In other respects, their treatment indicates greater liberality and freedom than might have been expected in Russia. The highest class of boys have access to a small library, a collection of natural history, and a philosophical apparatus. It is obvious, indeed, from the tenour and details of most of the plans pursued by the present emperor for the education of his subjects, and especially his patronising and encouraging Bible Societies, which must stimulate thought and inquiry, that he is unwittingly preparing his subjects for a much freer form of government than that under which they have hitherto laboured.

A very large collection of documents illustrative of the history, religion, laws, poetry, literature, &c. of Russia, are deposited in the archives of the College for Foreign Affairs, which is in this division of the city. In the same division is another office, peculiar, we believe, to this empire, the Office or College of General Provision or Guardianship. "In every pro-

with it likewise admits all applicants without inquiry and without expense. The baleful tendency of such an institution upon public morals needs not be pointed out.

vince of the Russian empire is a tribunal under the name of the College of General Provision, to which is entrusted the care of all establishments which are intended for the alleviation of human misery, those excepted that have particular privileges or charters. To these belong public schools, orphan houses, hospitals and infirmaries, receptacles for the poor, houses for incurables, madhouses, workhouses, and houses of correction."

The Moscow Bible Society occupy what was formerly *La Chancellerie Secréte*, or office of secret affairs; a species of star-chamber or inquisition, abolished by the present emperor. It is a large, massy edifice, and was munificently given to the Bible Society by its imperial patron in 1818. "What a contrast!" remarks Dr. Lyall, "from being an inquisition, to become, in a mild reign, the depository of thousands of Bibles and New Testaments in about twenty languages!" This Society, which is a branch of the St. Petersburgh (now called the Russian) Bible Society, was established in July 1813.

The fourth grand division of Moscow, the Semlianoigorod, or Earthen Town, derived its name from having been originally surrounded with an earthen rampart, few vestiges of which now remain. When Mr. Coxe visited Moscow, this division, as well as the Beliogorod, exhibited a grotesque groupe of churches, convents, palaces, and mean hovels; but in 1812, a great part of this division was burnt, and the poorer houses have not been rebuilt, while those of a higher order have been rebuilt or repaired, partly of wood and partly of stone. One of the most singular edifices is the *Vinnoi Dvore*, the *depôt* for *votki*, a spirituous liquor. It occupies a very large space, and forms two squares. "In this great

magazine are deposited the spirits, or *votki*, made at the distilleries belonging to the crown, or brought from the country by the distillers, and sold to the crown, according to special regulations. From this *depôt*, all Moscow and its neighbourhood, that is, all the drinking-houses as well as private individuals, are supplied with *votki* in abundance. The buildings have enormously thick walls, and are all vaulted. In them and the court-yards are lodged thousands of barrels of the precious *votki*, the nectar of the Russian peasants, which is measured in strength by the hydrometer, and sold according to law. Good *votki* by no means deserves the reproach thrown upon it by some travellers. As sold in the *kabaks* and in the shops, it is generally diluted and adulterated, and certainly is a fiery, slowly operating poison. It resembles Scotch whiskey. It is a kind of proof spirit, according to pharmaceutical phraseology. It is called brandy by the mistakes of travellers, and sometimes Russian brandy."

The Slobodi, or suburbs, the fifth and last division of Moscow, are an immense, irregular polygon, completely surrounding the Semlianoigorod. These suburbs are thirty-five in number. Some of them contain a mixture of stone and wooden houses, interspersed with hovels and superb mansions; but most of them may be justly denominated villages in town, as there is a large proportion of unenclosed land in pasture, under cultivation, or lying waste. The most important as well as the handsomest of the suburbs, is called *Nemetskaya Sloboda*. The etymological origin of this appellation illustrates a curious fact in the history of language, shewing the transition of words from their primitive import to meanings very remote. The noun *nemets* in the Russian language originally means a dumb person;

its secondary sense is a stranger, evidently thus applied, because strangers ignorant of the Russian, might not improperly be called dumb: by the next transition in its meaning, it was applied to a German. "This transition," Dr. Lyall observes, "may be easily explained. The Germans have always been by far more numerous in Russia than the emigrants of any other nation, and hence they may have been called *Nemetski*, or foreigners, at first; and afterwards, this term may have become synonymous with the Germans." In the suburb alluded to, there was formerly a German colony, and many artists and mechanics of that nation still reside in it. Of the monasteries and churches in the suburbs, the Spaso Andronief monastery attracts the notice of the stranger at a distance on account of its fine spire. It was built by a Russian architect, and, like many other buildings in Moscow and other cities of the empire, affords a striking proof of the taste and skill of the native architects. The spire, which has a massy foundation, consists of four stories. The first, which is very elevated, has a tower, surmounted by a cross on each side: through this is a high, elegant, arched entrance, with a fine iron gate, over which is an image of our Saviour, called "The image not made with hands." The second story is adorned with columns of the Doric order; and the other two stories, with Corinthian columns and with arches for the bells. The spire terminates in a tapering pear-shaped head, with fluted sides, over a ball, and bearing the cross, all highly gilded.

In the year 1819, Moscow contained six cathedrals, 21 monasteries, and 267 Greek churches. "Every monastery and church has its festival on the day of the saint to whom it is dedicated. These festivals are days of great rejoicing, mirth, and folly. In the

country, the whole peasantry of the village where the festival is to be celebrated, as well as the peasantry in the neighbouring villages, assemble and attend the celebration of Divine worship, during which they pay particular devotion before the image of the saint to whom the church is dedicated. The same ceremony takes place at all the churches in town. But on the festivals of the cathedrals and monasteries, there is a holy procession from the cathedral of the Assumption, of a greater or smaller number of the clergy according to the importance of the festival. They walk on foot, with uncovered heads, in regular order, accompanied by the holy banners, crosses, books, &c. and are protected from the crowd by the police and gens d'armes on horseback. The image of the saint to whom the church is dedicated, is peculiarly distinguished, and numerous burning candles are placed before it."

The Donskoi monastery, situated in the suburbs, is one of the first class. Of its festival, held on the 19th August, Dr. Lyall gives the following characteristic description. "The fête begins with the chiming of the bells and Divine service, the completion of which is the signal for general mirth,—in fact, for the commencement of a Bartholomew fair. Crowds of visiters arrive throughout the day, and pay their devotions before the image of the Donskaya, Holy Mother of God. In the evening, at the entrance under the north belfry, is placed an image of the Virgin Mary, with abundance of holy water. Every visiter makes his devotions before this image, is sprinkled with holy water by a priest, deposits his charity, and passes into the interior. I remarked, that the peasantry are really sprinkled with dexterity and in very rapid succession, but that the priest slowly dropped the water from the end of the brush into the hands of the nobi-

lity, and with it they rubbed their faces. For some days preceding this fête, many hands are employed in erecting tents, puppet-shows, stands of various kinds, horizontal and vertical swinging machines,—indeed, all the scenery which characterises a fair in England. On the plain before the monastery are grocers' stalls, cook-shops, fish-shops, taverns and kabaks; also tea-tents, in which the gipsies sing, dance, &c. A great variety of fruit and vegetables is here to be found; and a number of circular elegant tents are elevated, around the interior of which are placed numerous great copper pots or tubs, filled with *votki*. The persons employed to sell this nectar of the day, can scarcely answer the demands of the crowd, who, according to the quantity they purchase, receive it in a larger or smaller unglazed, shallow, earthen vessel, for which a deposite is given till returned. Spots of ground by the north wall of the monastery, are covered with water-melons in great profusion.

"What attracts our greatest attention, are crowds of peasantry every where squatted upon the field; men, women, and children, married and unmarried, forming different parties, and enjoying their various refreshments, while some others obtain a place within the drinking-tents, or the tea-tents. All bellow forth their rude, untutored music, in merry chorus, especially after the *votki* has exhilarated their spirits, and the air resounds with the noise of revelry. In eating and drinking, dancing and singing, ogling and courting, enjoyment takes a hundred forms. Then come quarrels and abuse: drunkenness, and rolling, and tumbling, usually conclude the day. Such a fête is a perfect Russian scene, where much of the low, national manners and customs of the people may be studied. The police are stationed every where about

the monastery, to preserve order, and to regulate the procession of the innumerable carriages of the nobility, and especially of the merchants, who arrive at the monastery in the afternoon, perform their devotions, and then see the fair. As soon as the twilight approaches, the police interdict the sale of *votki*; but when the weather is fine, great exertions are requisite to disperse the crowd, so that it is eleven or twelve o'clock at night before the curtain drops."

The national customs and manners of the lower people of Moscow may be properly studied at this fête; but the splendour, pomp, and magnificence which this city exhibits on other occasions at the religious festivals, may not inaptly be contrasted with it. Of the three grand ceremonies at Lent and Easter, the third and most magnificent is celebrated two hours after midnight on the morning of Easter Sunday. It is called the ceremony of the Resurrection. The night before, all the markets and shops of Moscow are filled with flesh, butter, eggs, poultry, pigs, and every kind of food. Every foot-passenger has his hands and even his arms filled with provisions, and the droskies are ready to break down beneath their weight. Dr. Clarke says, that the ceremony of the Resurrection at Moscow exceeds every thing of the kind at Rome, not even excepting the papal benediction during the holy week. He thus describes the extraordinary scene. "At midnight, the great bell of the cathedral tolled; its vibrations seemed to be the rolling of distant thunder; and they were instantly accompanied by the noise of all the bells of Moscow. Every inhabitant was stirring, and the rattling of carriages in the streets was greater than at noon-day. The whole city was in a blaze; lights were seen in all the windows, and innumerable torches in the streets. The tower of the

cathedral was illuminated from its foundation to its cross. The same ceremony takes place in all the churches; and what is truly surprising, considering their number, they are all equally crowded. We hastened to the cathedral: it was filled with a prodigious assembly, consisting of all ranks of both sexes, bearing lighted wax tapers, to be afterwards heaped in rows upon the different shrines. The walls, the ceiling, and every part of the building, are covered with the pictures of saints and martyrs. At the moment of our arrival the doors were shut, and on the outside appeared Plato, the archbishop, preceded by banners and torches, and followed by all his train of priests, with crucifixes and censers, who were making, three times in procession, the tour of the cathedral, chanting with loud voices, and glittering in sumptuous vestments, bespangled with gold, silver, and precious stones. The snow had not melted so equally within the Kremlin as in the streets of the city; this magnificent procession was therefore constrained to move upon planks over the deep mud which surrounded the cathedral. After completing the third circuit, they all halted opposite the great doors, which were still closed; the archbishop with a censer then scattered incense against the doors and over the priests. Suddenly these doors were opened, and the effect was magnificent beyond description. The immense throng of spectators within, bearing innumerable tapers, formed two lines, through which the archbishop entered, advancing with his train to a throne near the centre. The profusion of lights in all parts of the cathedral, and, among others, those of the numerous chandeliers in the centre, the richness of the dresses, and the vastness of the assembly, filled us with astonishment. Having joined the suite of the archbishop, we

accompanied the procession, and passed even to the throne; here the police-officers permitted us to stand among the priests, near an embroidered stool of satin placed for the archbishop. The loud chorus which burst forth at the entrance to the church, continued as the procession moved towards the throne, and after the archbishop had taken his seat; when my attention was for a moment called off, by seeing one of the Russians earnestly crossing himself with his right hand, while his left was employed in picking my companion's pocket of his handkerchief. Soon after, the archbishop descended, and went all round the cathedral; first offering incense to the priests, and then to the people as he passed along. When he had returned to his seat, the priests, two by two, performed the same ceremony, beginning with the archbishop, who rose and made obeisance, with a lighted taper in his hand. From the moment the church doors were opened, the spectators had continued bowing their heads and crossing themselves, insomuch that some of the people seemed really exhausted by the constant motion of the head and hands.

"We had now leisure to examine the dresses and figures of the priests, which were certainly the most striking we had ever seen. Their long, dark hair, without powder, fell down in ringlets, or straight and thick, far over their rich robes and shoulders; their dark, thick beards also entirely covered their breasts. Upon the heads of the archbishops and bishops were high caps, covered with gems, and adorned with miniature paintings, set in jewels, of the crucifixion, the virgin, and the saints. Their robes, of various-coloured satin, were of the most costly embroidery, and even upon these were miniature pictures set with precious stones. Such, according to the consecrated

record of ancient days, was the appearance of the high priests of old: holy men, standing by the tabernacle of the congregation, in fine raiment, the workmanship of 'Bezaleel, the son of Uri, the son of Hur, of the tribe of Judah.' It is said, there is a convent in Moscow, where women are entirely employed in working dresses for the priests. After two hours had been spent in various ceremonies, the archbishop advanced, holding forth a cross, which all the people crowded to embrace, squeezing each other nearly to suffocation. As soon, however, as their eagerness had been somewhat satisfied, he returned to the sacristy, under a pretence of seeking for the body of Christ; where, putting on a plain purple robe, he again advanced, exclaiming three times in a very loud voice, 'CHRIST IS RISEN!'

"The most remarkable part of the ceremony now followed. The archbishop, descending into the body of the church, concluded the whole ceremony by crawling round the pavement on his hands and knees, kissing the consecrated pictures, whether on the pillars, the walls, the altars, or the tombs; the priests and all the people imitating his example. Sepulchres were opened, and the mummied bodies of incorruptible saints exhibited: all of these underwent the same general kissing."*

* Having thus introduced to our readers Plato, the archbishop of Moscow, in all the splendour and pomp of his sacerdotal dress and his highest episcopal functions, it will be amusing to turn to the contrasted appearance which he exhibited when Dr. Clarke visited him at a convent near Moscow. "Upon our arrival at the convent, we were told he was then walking in a small garden, the care of which constituted his principal pleasure, and the employment characterises the simplicity and innocence of his life. As we entered the garden, we found him seated upon a turf bank beneath the windows of the refectory, attended by a bishop, an old man, his vicar,

In one quarter of the suburbs, on an elevated spot, commanding a fine view of Moscow, there is a large wooden house, belonging to the Orloff family, which gives a very correct idea of the style of living of the Russian nobility about half a century ago. A very extensive tract of ground is covered with a number of separate buildings; the front, with the intervals between them, measuring nearly 1000 feet. The upper part is wood, neatly painted of a green colour; the basement stories of the two principal edifices are of stuccoed brick. But, though thus plain in their external appearance and materials, their internal arrangement and fitting up display magnificence, taste,

the abbé of the monastery, and some other of the monks. We could scarcely believe our eyes when they told us it was Plato; for although we had often seen him in his archiepiscopal vestments, his rural dress had made such an alteration that we did not know him. He was habited in a striped silk bed-gown, with a night-cap upon his head, like the silk nets commonly worn by Italian postilions; having also a pair of woollen stockings upon his legs, the feet of which were of coarse linen, fastened on with twine in a most uncouth manner; he was without shoes, but a pair of yellow slippers lay at some distance. By his side, upon the bank, was placed his broad-brimmed, straw hat, offering a correct model of the Athenian *pileus*, and such as the patriarchs of the Greek Church have always worn: the shepherdesses of the Alps now wear the same kind of hat. In the hat-band he had placed a bunch of withered flowers. His white beard, added to the mildness of his animated countenance, gave to his features a most pleasing expression. He desired to know who we were? and being answered, Englishmen; 'What,' said he, 'all Englishmen! I wonder what your countrymen can find sufficiently interesting in Russia, to bring you so far from home, and in such times as these?' But having made these observations in the French language, he looked cautiously round him, and began to ask the monks, severally, whether they understood French? Finding them perfectly ignorant of that language, he bade us to sit by him, while, the rest forming a circle near him, he entertained us with a conversation, in which there was enough of science, of wit, and of freedom, to astonish any traveller in such a country, and at such a period."

and great attention to convenience. When Mr. Coxe visited Moscow, the true style of old Russian hospitality was kept up by Count Orloff; he kept an open table, at which always appeared a great variety of Greek wines. Mr. Coxe mentions one dish, served on his plentiful board, as extremely delicious, and only inferior to the best English venison,—a quarter of an Astrachan sheep, remarkable for the quantity and flavour of the fat. The family of Orloff have long been celebrated for the value and excellence of their stud; indeed, a great part of their revenue is derived from it: it is kept at the family seat, about fifteen miles from Moscow. This seat commands a beautiful view of a circular plain on which it is situated, watered by the Moskva, and skirted by gentle eminences, the sides of which are covered with wood, corn, and pasture. Mr. Coxe visited this stud, the greater part of which were grazing in the plain. It had been collected from the most favoured and celebrated breeds in almost every part of the world; Arabia, Turkey, Tatary, Persia, and England. Four horses were greatly prized by him, of the true *Koshlani* breed; this breed is peculiar to Arabia, where it is much esteemed, and out of which it is seldom seen. The present Countess Orloff is not less celebrated for the number and excellence of her stud, the attention she pays to them, and the immense income she derives from them.

The suburbs of Moscow present little that is particularly remarkable, besides what we have already described. One curiosity, however, must not be omitted, the market for the sale of houses. It is held in a large, open space, where a great number and variety of ready-made houses are exhibited. The purchaser states the number of rooms he requires, examines the one pointed out to him of that size, paying particular

attention to the timbers, which are regularly numbered, and if all suits and pleases him, concludes the bargain. Sometimes the house is taken away and put up at the expense of the seller, sometimes at that of the purchaser. Thus, in the short space of a week, a family may be enabled to buy, remove, raise, and inhabit a suitable dwelling. It ought to be added, however, that these ready-made houses are merely collections of trunks of trees, tenoned and mortised at each extremity into one another. The demand for such houses is gradually diminishing in consequence of brick houses taking the place of wooden ones in Moscow.

From the description we have given of this city, it will be abundantly evident that it covers an immense area. The most correct estimate of its circumference makes it twenty-six miles and a half; but this of course includes many vacant spaces. Its greatest diameter is about eight miles; its least, not above five. The extent, in comparison with that of St. Petersburgh, is nearly twelve to one. It is reckoned that there are upwards of 60 principal streets, and upwards of 500 cross streets. Few of the streets are straight, but they are generally wide; some of them enormously so. The squares, places, and markets are twenty-five, mostly irregular. There are upwards of four million square feet of pavement, but in general it is very indifferent; many streets are unpaved, and some only on one side. A few of the streets are well lighted, but for the most part they are not, the whole number of lamps in this immense capital not amounting to 5000. The Moskva, from which the city takes its name, flows through it in a winding channel, and receives two small rivulets, one in the Semlianoigorod, the other at the western extremity of the Kremlin: both these in summer are nearly dry. There is only

one bridge of stone across the Moskva, and a few small ones of the same material cross the subsidiary streams; but there are immense numbers of single arches of wood and stone. The most curious are what are called *living bridges*, formed of planks supported on whole trees laid across one another: these, floating in the river, yield under and spring after the carriages, &c., being fixed to upright posts, so as also to rise and fall with the river. In the centre, there is a part that can be removed for the passage of boats, &c. These bridges are taken away in the spring during the floods. In all parts of Russia, being of simple construction and rude materials, they are erected by the peasantry.

The population of Moscow has been variously estimated. Mr. Heber, in 1800, states it at 250,000 fixed inhabitants; and this estimate he derived from the master of the police. Dr. Lyall supposes it to have been 312,000 in 1817: of these, 197,482 were males, and 114,518 females. In the same year, the births amounted to 3,437, and the deaths to 4,463. In 1805, when the total population is supposed to have been 208,883, the nobility were reckoned at 12,165; the servants attached to their houses, at 14,445; the slaves resident for a time, at 45,155; those constantly resident, at 12,540; priests, deacons, &c. with their wives, 3,508; and foreigners 3,811; of these last, upwards of 1000 were Germans.*

"In consequence of the immense extent of the city and suburbs, a great number of hackney-coaches are stationed in the streets for the accommodation of passengers. These vehicles are without tops, have mostly

* The number of British resident at Moscow in 1818, according to the public register, was 148, including fifty children. Dr. Lyall supposes that they may now amount to about 200.

four wheels, and are provided either with a long bench, or one, two, or three separate seats, like armed chairs, placed sideways: their fares are so reasonable, that servants occasionally use them upon errands to distant parts of the city. The coachman generally drives a full trot, at the rate of eight or nine miles in an hour." If the wealth and grandeur of this city were to be estimated solely from the splendour of the equipages and the number of the horses attached to them, the inference would be far beyond the truth. There is hardly an individual above the rank of a plebeian, who has not four horses to his carriage; and Mr. Coxe informs us, that nothing is more common than to meet the equipages of the nobility, with complete sets, driving merely about the streets of Moscow; but the postilions are generally ragged boys, and the coachman a peasant in his sheep-skin, while the traces of the horses are made of no better materials than ropes.

The police of Moscow, like that of St. Petersburgh, is very effective, and its regulations are in general admirable. It was first organised by Peter the Great, reformed by Catherine II., and brought to its present state by Alexander. In order that it may act with the utmost promptness and regularity, Moscow is divided into 20 quarters, and these again into 88 subdivisions. In the absence of the emperor, the military governor is supreme: the head police-master is, however, the acting head of the whole system. Besides constables, watchmen, &c., there are officers whose sole business it is to keep a register of all the inhabitants in their respective districts, examine and arrange all passports, settle all petty quarrels or disputes, and keep a watchful eye on all that passes: a faithful report of all is carried to a head officer. The number of watch-houses is 360, and as there are three watch-

men to each, their number is 1,080. No person can enter or quit the city without being known, as every householder and innkeeper is obliged to give into the police-office the names of those who lodge with them; and if a stranger or lodger stay out all night, and does not return on the third day, the landlord must inform the police of it. No person can leave Moscow, unless he previously publish his name and rank in the newspapers three several times; there is, besides, a great deal of trouble in obtaining a passport.

From the number of wooden houses in Moscow, it is much exposed to fires: the establishment and regulations to protect it from this calamity are excellent. There are particular *depôts* for waggons, engines, &c., surmounted by lofty towers, at the top of which watchmen are stationed. As soon as they perceive a fire in their quarter, a signal is made by a flag in the daytime, and by lanterns at night, which is repeated at all the other quarters. When grand entertainments are given by the court or nobility, the fire-engines, firemen, and police are all stationed around the edifice. In summer, the whole regiment of firemen, with their engines, are exercised in watering the roads. In order to render the firemen more expert, they are trained in a very singular but useful exercise. A lofty pole, about the height of the fourth story of a large house, with a platform at its top, is erected; to this ladders are attached, and the firemen are practised in descending from this platform by means of ropes or rope-ladders. They are even expected to accustom themselves to jump from the platform, a sail-cloth suspended by poles, feather beds, &c., being placed below to break their fall. Mr. Coxe notices another regulation, which must be of great service in cases of fire, as well as during riots. "At the entrance of

each street there is a *chevaux de frise* gate, one end of which turns upon a pivot, and the other rolls upon a wheel; near it is a sentry-box, in which a man is occasionally stationed. In times of riot or fire, the sentinel shuts the gate, and all passage is immediately stopped."

The state of morals in Moscow, is represented by both Dr. Clarke and Dr. Lyall as dreadfully depraved. Sir Robert Ker Porter gives a more favourable account of it. After speaking of the superiority of the ladies of Moscow over those of the modern capital, in point of personal charms, he adds: "Before I came into this country, I was led to believe that I should find the morals on a par with those of France. To me it seems totally the reverse. I never saw married people more happy, or apparently more affectionate towards each other. I never, in any country, met with young women more amiable and virtuous. Every country has its *mauvais sujets*;—but from what I have been able to judge, Moscow, for a city whose sole object is pleasure, possesses less of what is called fashionable vice, than may be found in countries where more seeming austerity is practised." The truth will probably be found to lie between these two opposite representations. Enormous wealth like that of the Russian nobles, a religion of pageantry and unmeaning ceremonials, together with the slavery of the lower orders, degrading alike to the vassal and his lord,—must have a demoralising influence.

Moscow, though, in contradistinction from St. Petersburgh, it is called the ancient metropolis of Russia, is not so old a city as Novogorod, Kiev, Vladimir, or Tver. Its origin is involved in some obscurity, but it is supposed to have been built about the middle of the twelfth century. It derives its name, (written

Moskwa and pronounced *Maskvà* by the natives,) according to some authorities, from the river which flows by the Kremlin; according to others, from *mostkov*, a bridge of planks, the ancient name of the river being *Smorodino*. It stands in lat. 55° 45′ 45″ N., long. 37° 33′ E. This city has been subject to repeated calamitous visitations from the sword, fire, and pestilence. Within a century after its foundation, it was taken and laid waste by the Tâtars. In 1366, the plague raged here dreadfully; and not long afterwards, the town was consumed by fire, in less than two hours: this is distinguished in the Russian annals by the name of the great fire. In consequence of this calamity, the stone Kremlin was built, and Moscow was first surrounded with stone walls, instead of the old wooden fortifications. In 1382, in consequence of the approach of the Tâtars, there was an insurrection in the city, which was followed by its capture; nearly all the inhabitants were put to the sword, the city was given up to plunder, and great part of it was burnt. The number of those who perished is said to have exceeded 24,000. In 1408, the Tâtars again approached Moscow, on which the grand duke's brother, who was left in charge of the town, in order to prevent the enemy from setting fire to the Kremlin, ordered the suburbs to be burned; and thus some thousand houses were destroyed. Their inhabitants ran to the gates of the Kremlin, but, under the apprehension of a famine, they were refused admittance: the consequences were dreadful. The Tâtars, however, did not succeed this time in taking Moscow. In 1445, when, in expectation of a visit from the same ferocious enemy, great numbers had fled from the country for protection to the Kremlin, a great fire broke out in the middle of the town, by

which the whole of it was consumed, and about 3,000 persons perished. During this century and the following, it suffered repeatedly from the like calamity. In 1568 and 1570, the plague re-appeared. In 1571, the Tâtars of the Crimea burned the suburbs, when, it is said, more than 100,000 men perished, either by the flames or by the sword of the enemy. The Tâtars, however, were not able to take the Kremlin. In 1611, the Poles set the town on fire, "so that there was nothing left but the castle." Yet, in 1636, Olearius describes Moscow as about three leagues in circumference, and containing above 40,000 houses. "It is, out of all question," he says, "one of the greatest cities in Europe." The palaces of the great lords, and the houses of some rich merchants, were of brick or stone; all the rest were made of beams and cross pieces of fir, laid one upon another, and covered with the bark of trees, and sometimes with turf besides. This author mentions a "hair market," so called "because the inhabitants go thither to be trimmed, by which means the place comes to be so covered with hair, that a man treads as softly as if he were on a feather bed."

After the foundation of St. Petersburgh, Moscow naturally became a city of secondary importance, though many of the more *national* Russian nobility continued to reside in it, refusing to desert the ancient capital, situated in the heart of Muscovy, for a modern city built on conquered and, as it were, foreign ground. This dislike to St. Petersburgh, however, has been gradually wearing out, and is at present nearly obliterated. From the removal of the seat of government to St. Petersburgh, up to the year 1812, a few fires, some civil commotions, and repeated visitations of the plague, are the chief events in the annals of Moscow. But the invasion of Russia by the French

in that year, followed by their occupation of Moscow, the burning of that city, and their consequent disastrous retreat, have connected its history with some of the most momentous and influential events in the history of modern Europe. Before we proceed to give an account of these transactions, it will be necessary to trace the route of the French army on its advance to Moscow, which will afford us an opportunity of describing the line of road from the frontiers of Russia, and the principal places which occur in that route.

ROUTE OF THE FRENCH TO MOSCOW.

THE cause of the invasion is well known, and may be told in a few words. The paramount and favourite object of Bonaparte was, to exclude English manufactures from the continent. To this system the Emperor Alexander had given his consent, and had acted upon it; but in Russia, it had created greater dissatisfaction and loss than in any other part of Europe. The Russian nobles derive all their income from the sale of the gross produce of their estates,—hemp, flax, tallow, &c. For these articles Great Britain was their best customer, and the continental system of Bonaparte of course pressed heavily on them. This circumstance, together with the jealousy and dislike they felt at seeing their emperor and country made subservient to the views of Bonaparte, produced a dissatisfaction which, acting on the emperor's own fears, had induced him to relax the prohibitory system. This annoyed Bonaparte, while at the same time it afforded him a plausible excuse for attempting either the conquest of Russia, or at least a more absolute command over its sovereign. Negotiations were, indeed, carried on; but, while these were pending, both parties prepared for war. Bonaparte had collected, in

the month of June 1812, 490,000 men between the Vistula and the Niemen, besides 1,372 pieces of cannon, thousands of provision-waggons, innumerable herds of oxen, &c. The army consisted of French, Italians, Poles, Prussians, Bavarians, &c., headed by Napoleon in person; and under him were Murat and all his most celebrated generals. The army of Alexander consisted of 300,000 men: Barclay de Tolly directed the whole. They took up a position behind the Niemen. On the 23d of June, the first division of the French army, consisting of 220,000 men, with the emperor at its head, reached this river. Soon after they had crossed it, the plan of the Russians became apparent. Bonaparte hoped either to intimidate Alexander by the mere approach of his immense army, or at least by a decisive battle. But Alexander was not intimidated, and the Russians most carefully and systematically avoided a general engagement. Often the two armies were so near each other, that Bonaparte thought the enemy meant to fight, or could not avoid it, if he were so disposed; but when his preparations were all made and his plans formed, the enemy had disappeared. This course fretted Bonaparte's temper, and he was still more irritated when he found the villages and towns deserted, and the country through which he had to advance laid waste. He had, indeed, collected and brought with him immense quantities of stores and provisions, and he had ordered fresh supplies to follow; but it is evident that an army of 500,000 men could not be supported by what it brought with it, or by what came from a distance: besides, in proportion as he advanced, his difficulties in this respect would necessarily increase. After the French had passed the Niemen, and thus entered the Russian dominions, Bonaparte pushed on to Wilna,

where Alexander was. He hoped that the possession of this city would be contested; but the Russians, true to their system, left it undefended.

Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, is situated in lat. 54° 41′ N., and long. 25° 33′ E., at the confluence of the rivers Vilia and Vilika. Its population amounts to about 25,000. It enjoys a considerable trade,—confined, however, chiefly to the Jews. Its university, founded by the Emperor Alexander, an old castle, and some other ancient buildings, are the only things for which it is remarkable. Lithuania, originally under its own sovereigns, then united to Poland, and now part of the Russian empire, abounds in forests, in which a great variety of wild beasts are found. Of these, the bonasus, or bison, is the most singular and rare. It is a kind of wild ox, formerly very common in Europe, but no where at present to be found in the old continent, except in the Lithuanian forests, some parts of the Carpathian mountains, and in the Caucasus. Among the numerous kinds of birds, a little species of titmouse, with a pendant nest, of a wonderful structure, is not unfrequently found. Amber is occasionally dug up in the forests: marine petrifactions, especially those of the madrepore species, abound. The Lithuanians are a very rude race. Their carts are put together without iron; their bridles and traces are generally plaited of the bark of trees, or made of twisted branches. Their dress is a thick linen shirt and drawers, a long coarse drugget coat or a sheep-skin cloak, a round black felt cap, lined with wool, and shoes of the bark of trees. Their huts consist of trees piled on each other. They are cringing and servile, displaying undoubted proofs of the tyranny and ignorance to which they are subjected. Bonaparte expected that the Lithuanians would eagerly join

him, in order that they might free themselves from the Russian yoke: he calculated on four millions, but only a few thousands entered his army. This arose in part from the behaviour of the French soldiery: notwithstanding the orders of the emperor, the suburbs of Wilna were pillaged, and the Lithuanians were thus intimidated, or rendered averse to the French. Only twenty days' provisions had been supplied to the army when it left Prussia: before these were exhausted, Bonaparte expected to have conquered or cajoled Alexander. His convoys not having come up, anxious to push forward, he was obliged to enter into negotiations with the Jews; but even the provisions they supplied, did not arrive at Wilna till after the departure of the army.

Already the French had begun to suffer dreadfully, and to be guilty of the most wanton and savage devastation and cruelty. The Duke of Treviso informed Bonaparte, "that he had seen, from the Niemen to the Vilia, nothing but devastated houses, and baggage and provision-waggons abandoned; they were found dispersed in the highways and in the fields, overturned, broken open, and their contents scattered here and there, and pillaged as if they had been taken by the enemy: he should have imagined himself following a defeated army. Ten thousand horses had been killed by the cold rains of the great storm, and by the green corn, which had become their usual food. Their carcases were encumbering the road; they sent forth a mephitic smell impossible to breathe. It was a new scourge, which some compared to famine, but much more terrible: several soldiers of the young guard had already perished of hunger." This plain but bold representation angered Bonaparte; he doubted the truth of it; and another general giving a less

unfavourable account, was believed. This confirmed the opinion which began to be entertained, that Bonaparte grew angry at the account of evils which he considered as irremediable, his policy imposing on him the necessity of a prompt and decisive victory.

This, however, the Russians were resolved he should have no opportunity to acquire: they cautiously retreated, leaving behind them, deserted villages, broken up roads, and a country stripped bare equally of its peasantry and of all kinds of provisions. Occasionally they amused Bonaparte with a flag of truce, which, however, brought no overtures.

Eighty leagues beyond Wilna, the Dwina and the Borysthenes separate Lithuania from Old Russia. The narrow space between these rivers, before they take separate directions, the one to the south, and the other to the north-west, constitutes, as it were, the gates of Muscovy. It is the focus of the roads which lead to the two capitals. Here Napoleon made another attempt to cut off the retreat of one division of the Russian army. For this purpose Davoust was despatched, and he succeeded in arriving at such a position, and so near this division of the Russians, that when the intelligence was communicated to the French emperor, he exclaimed, "They are mine." Indeed, only three marches were necessary in order to enclose 40,000 Russians within an impassable ring. But they had abandoned their plan: they indeed offered a shew of resistance, but only to that extent which was necessary to keep up the hopes of the French, and to draw them further on to their destruction.

Bonaparte remained at Wilna twenty days, apparently undecided in what manner to act, telling others, and perhaps believing himself, that Alexander had abandoned Lithuania because he was too feeble to pro-

tect it. On the 16th of July, he departed from Wilna, being informed that the whole of his army was centered at one point, according to his orders, and that a battle claimed his presence: but again he was disappointed. He endeavoured to anticipate the Russians in the possession of Vitepsk, but not having been able to accomplish this, he determined to force them from that position. The Russians, on their part, seemed equally resolved to defend the long defiles near this town. A partial but obstinate engagement took place between the troops commanded by Murat and the Viceroy of Italy, and the Russians under Barclay. The latter retreated just as Bonaparte himself came up. He had formed his plan of battle, and so confident was he that it would take place and ensure him the victory, that his words to Murat were, "To-morrow, at five o'clock, the sun of Austerlitz." On the morrow, however, July 28th, the Russians had disappeared, and the French entered Vitepsk. This place, the capital of a government of the same name, is 689 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 553 from Moscow. It is mentioned by the Greek writers in the tenth century, when it seems to have been frequented by the Russians on their passage down the Borysthenes to Greece and Constantinople. The Dwina divides it into two parts: the inhabitants amount to 300,000. The little commerce it possesses is in the hands of the Jews. The government of Vitespk is in general fertile, producing hemp and flax in great abundance. The raising of these and of corn, the feeding of cattle, and the making of potash from their immense forests, employ the inhabitants, who amount to about 672,000.

This place was deserted, except by a few Jews and Jesuits. They were interrogated respecting the route of the Russians, but they were either ignorant

or would not tell. A council of war being held, the necessity of halting where they were, on the borders of Old Russia, was insisted on by Bonaparte's generals. Whither, they asked, must we pursue the enemy in order to compel them to fight? At Vitepsk, they had acted as at Wilna; shewn themselves, allowed their rear guard to be approached, and then fled. It was further stated, that a halt was necessary to organise Lithuania, and to establish magazines. Bonaparte at first seemed to yield to these reasons for remaining where he was: establishments of all kinds were formed, and even embellishment and amusement were attended to. But if Bonaparte was at any one moment sincere in his intention to spend the winter here, that intention was soon abandoned. He determined to advance; and already full of the plan which was to secure him conquest, "he hastened to his maps; they presented to his view the cities of Moscow and Smolensko,—the great Moscow, the holy city—names which he repeated with satisfaction, and which seemed to add new fuel to his ambitious flame." He communicated his design and his plans to his generals, but they exhibited their disapprobation, either by their countenances or by their language. He was, however, immovable; nor did the information that he received of peace between Russia and Turkey, which set another Russian army free to act against him, alter his resolution. On the 10th of August, he gave his order of march: in four days all his army were to be assembled on the left bank of the Borysthenes, in the direction of Liady. On the 13th, he himself left Vitepsk, after having remained there a fortnight.

Hitherto the Russians had most carefully and systematically avoided a general battle. No opportunity was indeed lost of harassing the French, and many

skirmishes had taken place. In these the French were generally successful; but the loss which necessarily attended their success, did them more essential injury than these trifling victories could compensate. The Russians, however, had not witnessed without murmurs of discontent and indignation, the advances of the French; and Barclay, the commander-in-chief, was severely blamed for not defending the sacred soil of Old Russia. The circumstance of his being a foreigner added to his unpopularity; and it was soon evident, that his cautious and wise plan would be wholly or partially abandoned, unless Alexander continued to give him unlimited confidence, and unless Barclay himself could carry it through in spite of the want of cordiality of his officers, and the ardour of the army for a battle. While things were in this state, he was informed that part of his army had been attacked and required his assistance, otherwise Smolensko would fall into the hands of the French. Marshal Ney had expected to capture this city by a coup-de-main; but he was obliged to fall back on a woody height, bordering on the river Borysthenes. "From thence he was surveying the city and its environs, when he imagined that he could discover troops in motion on the side of the river. He ran to fetch the emperor, and conducted him through coppices and dingles, to avoid the fire of the place. Napoleon, on reaching the height, beheld a cloud of dust enveloping long black columns, glistening with a multitude of arms; these masses approached so rapidly, that they seemed to run. It was Barclay, Bagration, nearly 120,000 men; in short, the whole Russian army. Transported with joy at this sight, Napoleon clapped his hands, exclaiming, 'At last I have him!' There could be no doubt of it: this surprising army was hastening up to throw itself into

Smolensko, to pass through it, to deploy under its walls, and at length to offer that battle which was so ardently desired: the moment that was to decide the fate of Russia, was at length arrived." But the Russian commander-in-chief was still able to adhere to his plan, notwithstanding that Bagration, the second in command, a native Russian, ashamed and indignant at the pollution of the soil of his country by the French, was disposed to co-operate with Bonaparte in bringing on a general battle. Barclay, aware of his disposition, sent him away, with directions to defend the town of Elnia, on which he supposed the French were marching in order to get between the Russians and Moscow.

On the 17th of August, Napoleon awoke early in the morning, expecting to see the Russian army drawn up before him; but the field was empty. He still persisted in his hope of a battle, till he learned that the road from Smolensko to Moscow, on the opposite bank of the Borysthenes, was covered with artillery and troops on their march. There was no longer any doubt that they were in full retreat. All that now remained was, to gain possession of Smolensko without loss of time. A general assault was ordered; every manœuvre except one, which ought to have been decisive, succeeded; but night came on, the town was not carried, and shells were ordered to be thrown into it, to dislodge the enemy. Presently, thick columns of smoke arose; the fire increased, and it was soon ascertained that Smolensko was consumed. Barclay had evacuated it. The French army entered the walls, "and traversed the reeking and blood-stained ruins with its accustomed order, pomp, and martial music, triumphing over the deserted wreck, and having no other witness of its glory than itself;—a show without spec-

tators, an almost fruitless victory,—a melancholy glory, of which the smoke that surrounded them, and seemed to be their only conquest, was but too faithful an emblem."

Bonaparte saw here, as at the Niemen, at Wilna, and at Vitepsk, that the phantom of victory which allured him forward, and which he always imagined himself to be on the point of seizing, had once more eluded his grasp. Nevertheless he wrote to Paris, that the conquest of Smolensko made him master of the Russian salt-works, and that his minister of finance might reckon upon twenty-four additional millions of francs.

Smolensko, the ruins of which Bonaparte had thus gained possession of, is thus described by Mr. Coxe. "Though by no means the most magnificent, it is by far the most singular town I have ever seen. It is situated upon the river Dnieper, and occupies two hills and the valley which lies between them. It is surrounded by walls thirty feet high and fifteen feet thick, with the lower part of stone and the upper part of brick. These walls, which follow the shape of the hills, and enclose a circumference of seven versts (four miles and three quarters), have, at every angle, round or square towers of two or three stories, much broader at top than at bottom, and covered with circular roofs of wood. The intervals are studded with smaller turrets. On the outside of the wall is a broad, deep ditch, regularly covered with traverses, glacis, &c. and, where the ground is highest, there are redoubts of earth, according to the modern style of fortification. In the middle of the town is an eminence, upon which stands the cathedral, from whence I had a most picturesque view of the town, interspersed, within the circuit of the walls, with gardens, groves, copses, fields of pasture, and corn. The buildings are mostly

wooden, of one story, (many of them no better than cottages,) excepting here and there a gentleman's house, which is called a palace, and several churches, constructed of brick and stuccoed. One long, broad street, which is paved, intersects the whole length of the town in a strait line: the other streets generally wind in circular directions, and are floored with planks. The walls, stretching over the uneven sides of the hills, till they reach the banks of the Dnieper; their ancient style of architecture; their grotesque towers; the spires of churches shooting above the trees, which are so numerous as almost to conceal the buildings from view; the appearance of meadows, and arable ground;—all these objects blended together, exhibit a scene of the most singular and contrasted kind. On the further side of the Dnieper are many straggling wooden houses, that form the suburbs, and are joined to the town by a wooden bridge. As far as I could collect from vague information, Smolensko contains 4,000 inhabitants: it has no manufactures, but carries on some commerce with the Ukraine, Dantzic, and Riga. The principal articles of its trade are flax, hemp, honey, wax, hides, hogs' bristles, masts, planks, and Siberian furs."

The Dnieper or Borysthenes, on which this town stands, rises near the source of the Volga, about 100 miles from Smolensko; after passing by it and Mohilof, it divides the Ukraine from Poland, flows by Kiev, and falls into the Black Sea: it begins to be navigable a little above Smolensko. The distance of this town from St. Petersburgh is 716 versts; from Moscow 384. The government of the same name, of which it is the capital, is in general flat and fertile: salt, flax, hemp, rich pastures, and corn-fields are the sources of its wealth and commerce. Wax, honey,

hides, timber, and a few manufactures, are also found in it. Mines of iron and copper abound: the latter are wrought to great advantage. The see of the archbishop of Smolensko is one of the most ancient in the Russian empire.

Mr. James visited this city in 1814, and he thus describes its appearance at that time: "We now crossed the Dnieper on one of the rafts of the country, and had travelled a few versts in the valley through which it winds its course, when, on a sudden turn of the road, the hills opened, and disclosed at a short distance a view of Smolensko: it was no longer 'the volcano of fire,' but a quiet and peaceful scene. The heights on which the town stood, shewed the domes of the venerable cathedral rising majestically over their summit, while their sides, from the top to the very base, were covered with trees and gardens in rich luxuriance: the few ruined houses that were discoverable at this distance, together with the turrets and ancient walls that encircled them, lent a picturesque effect to the scene, rather than excited any feeling of horror. Advancing a little further, we entered the suburbs on the right banks of the river, the same which had suffered from the conflagration that took place at the close of the battle of Smolensko. These too had now been entirely rebuilt; and, among other signs of renovation, the old wooden bridge over the Dnieper, which had been destroyed by the retreating army of the Russians, was supplied by one of a light military construction, the work of the French engineers.

"On the next morning, we rose early to make a second tour round the town. The cathedral, notwithstanding all the reports in circulation, we found, was uninjured, and afforded a fine specimen of the style of ecclesiastical magnificence in this country. But this

building stood almost single amidst heaps of ruins: the scene at hand presented a detail far different in its aspect from the gay prospect which before had flattered the eye. The chief street of the town, the great square, even to the very house which was pointed out as having been the lodging of Bonaparte, had all suffered the same destruction. The walls, too, of the town were breached in several parts; and the towers on which batteries of howitzers had been planted during the action of the 18th of August, were in a very shattered state."

The inhabitants of Smolensko were by no means prepared for the calamity which befell them: they had been repeatedly assured that all was well; and even when the Emperor Alexander and Barclay passed through their town, these assurances were repeated. In a very few days afterwards, the enemy was at their gates; and, at a moment's warning, they were ordered to leave their homes, for Smolensko was to be destroyed. The will of the emperor, the abhorrence which a Russian feels at the invasion of his country, their habits of implicit, unreflecting, and devoted obedience to their sovereign, operated effectually on many; but some refused or lingered: most of these were actually torn away from their houses; and the few that did remain, were afterwards severely called to account.

Soon after the capture of this place, Bonaparte was again told of the dreadful state of the country he had passed, and of the utter change that had taken place in the constitution and habits of his army, by General Rapp, who had joined it. In his journey, he had seen all who were marching to the army, and all who had separated from it; all who were not excited either by the presence of the chiefs, or by example, or by the

war. In Germany, the recruits were ardent and jovial; but, beyond the Oder, in Poland, they began to be dismayed and alarmed; fatigue and lassitude were depicted in their countenances. As he advanced to a greater distance into Russia, all these symptoms became greatly aggravated. Wine and spirits had failed; even water was scarce; the food was inadequate and unwholesome: owing to which and the infection of the atmosphere, caused by the unburied carcases of men and horses, dysentery and the typhus fever broke out. Already, from these causes, and from unprofitable and indecisive engagements, the French had lost one-fourth, and the allies one-half of the army. A night's rest in some degree recruited the troops, and they started in order the next morning; but scarcely had they gone a few steps, when the weakest dropped behind, and many, able to follow, pretending weakness, followed their example. General Rapp represented all these circumstances. Bonaparte replied, "I am going to strike a great blow, and all the stragglers will rally." To Sebastian he said: "The state of the army, I know, is dreadful; from Wilna, half of it consisted of stragglers; now they form two-thirds of it; there is, therefore, no time to be lost: we must extort peace: it is at Moscow. Besides, this army cannot now stop: with its composition, and in its disorganisation, motion alone keeps it together. One may advance at the head of it, but not stop or go back. It is an army of attack, but not of defence; an army of operation, not of position."

The Russians were acquainted with the state of their enemy, who had been reduced to this state by their system of not fighting; and it was, therefore, their obvious policy to adhere to this system, and, when they were compelled to fight, not to allow the battle

to be general or decisive. Barclay, however, soon found himself compelled to engage on a larger scale than he wished: the French had crossed the Borysthenes at several points. The Russian army was discovered on the road to Moscow. Ney pressed on after it; but it was first necessary to carry a strong position on a hill, which part of the Russian army had occupied to cover their retreat. The foot of this hill became the scene of an obstinate struggle; 30,000 men were successively engaged in it on both sides. The result was, that the French, at the close of the day, had gained the position, but with so severe a loss, that Ney ordered his troops to cease firing, to keep silence, and to present bayonets. When daylight appeared, the Russians were not to be seen; they had availed themselves of the darkness to effect their retreat, carrying with them all their artillery, baggage, and wounded. Bonaparte represented this as an important victory; he distributed rewards, nay, he even seems to have deceived himself. When, however, he was informed that his troops had proceeded eight leagues without overtaking the enemy, the spell was dissolved, and the sad reality pressed on his thoughts and feelings. "Smolensko was but one vast hospital, and the loud groans which issued from it drowned the shout of glory which had just been raised on the field of battle." Night and day the surgeons were employed, but, on the second night, all the materials for dressing the wounded were exhausted. One hospital, containing 100 wounded men, was forgotten for three days, and then accidentally discovered. The reports of the surgeons were most dreadful: besides the wounded, they were called upon to attend many soldiers who, exhausted with fatigue and hunger, had drunk copiously of the brandy of the country, mixed

with narcotic plants. "Others, less sober, or more debilitated, were seized with giddiness, stupefaction, and torpor; they squatted into the ditches and in the roads. Their half-open, watery, and lack-lustre eyes, seemed to watch with insensibility death gradually seizing their whole frame; they expired sullenly and without a groan."

For some time, Bonaparte was undecided whether he should advance to St. Petersburgh or Moscow, or proceed southward to Kiev. At Smolensko, he was at the point where the roads to the two capitals meet; twenty-nine marches from St. Petersburgh, and fifteen from Moscow. The thought of proceeding to the south was soon abandoned; and his determination to continue his route to Moscow was fixed by the intelligence he received, that Murat had come up with the whole Russian army, drawn up in order of battle. This intelligence was received on the night of the 24th of August. Bonaparte immediately hastened forward with his guard; but before he reached Murat, the enemy's army had disappeared. On the 28th of August, the French, having crossed the vast plains of the government of Viasma, found the town of Dorogobouje, near which the Russians had been drawn up in order of battle, in ashes, like Smolensko. It stood upon a rising hill, and like the latter place, had exhibited an intermixture of churches, houses, cottages, corn-fields, and meadows; it was formerly a strong fortress, and had frequently been besieged during the wars between Russia and Poland. The adjacent country consists of a large plain, watered by the Dnieper, and bounded by distant hills. Thence, to the town of Viasma, there is almost a continued forest, with an occasional intermixture of pastures and corn-fields. Mr. Coxe travelled this route at the same time of year as the

French, the end of August; and he remarks that, though in the 55th degree of northern latitude, the harvest was then very forward, the wheat and barley were already carried in, and the peasants were employed in cutting the oats and millet. Viasma stands on a rivulet of the same name. The Russian army, in its retreat, destroyed the bridges over it, plundered the town, and set it on fire. Mr. Coxe describes it as standing on an eminence, making a magnificent appearance with the domes and spires of several churches rising above the trees. "It spreads in a broken, disjointed manner over a large extent of ground; its buildings are of wood, a few houses of brick excepted. Part of the principal street is formed, like the Russian roads, of the trunks of trees laid cross-ways, and part is boarded with planks like the floor of a room. It contains above twenty churches, a remarkable number for a place but thinly inhabited. The churches in these small towns and villages are chiefly ornamented with a cupola and several domes: the outside walls are either white-washed, or painted red; and the cupolas, or domes, are generally green, or of a different colour from the other part. At some distance, the number of spires and domes rising above the trees which conceal the contiguous hovels, would lead a traveller, unacquainted with the country, to expect a large city, in a place, where, perhaps, upon nearer inspection, he would only find a collection of wooden huts." The vast forest of Volkouski is near Viasma; it stretches on all sides to an immense extent, and, in the direction of Moscow, for 150 miles without interruption, almost to the very gates of that city. The Dwina, Dnieper, and Volga take their rise in it; the last two at a short distance from Viasma, and near each other.

Hitherto, the Russian general, Barclay, had been enabled to adhere to his plan of not risking a general engagement; but, in consequence of a violent clamour having been raised against him in the army, which had been supported by the nobility, the merchants, and all Moscow, and to which Alexander thought it prudent to yield, Barclay was suspended in the command, and Kutusof, a native general, was appointed in his stead. A battle was now resolved upon, and the Russian army marched on Borodino, on the frontier of the government of Moscow, there to conquer or die.

In order to render their position as strong as possible, the whole plain of Borodino was covered with intrenchments. The information of this circumstance, and of the change in the command of the Russian army, convinced Bonaparte that, at last, what he had so frequently announced and expected, would now certainly take place. He assured his troops that the end of their toil was approaching; that the Russians would at length give them an opportunity of beating them; and he allowed them two days to rest, to prepare their arms, and to collect subsistence.

He was naturally anxious to gain some information respecting his new adversary. "Kutusof was described to him as an old man, the ground-work of whose reputation had been formerly laid by a singular wound. He had since skilfully profited by circumstances. The very defeat of Austerlitz, which he had foreseen, added to his renown, which was further increased by his late campaigns against the Turks. His valour was incontestable; but he was charged with regulating its vehemence according to his private interest; for he calculated every thing. His genius was slow, vindic-

tive, and above all, crafty—the true Tâtar character! knowing the art of preparing an implacable war, with a fawning, subtle, and patient policy. In other respects, he was a more adroit courtier than able general, but formidable by his renown, by his address in augmenting it, and in making others concur in this object. He had contrived to flatter the whole nation, and every individual of it, from the general to the private soldier. It was added, that there was in his person, in his language, nay, even in his very dress, his superstitious practices, and his age, a remnant of Suwarrow,—the stamp of an ancient Muscovite, an air of nationality, which rendered him dear to the Russians. At Moscow, the joy at his appointment had been carried to intoxication; people embraced one another in the streets, and considered themselves as saved."

Aware of the importance of rousing every feeling that could aid his purpose, and intimately acquainted with the character of his countrymen, Kutusof drew up the whole Russian army under arms, and, surrounded with every species of religious and military pomp, took his station in the middle of it: all the Russian clergy attached to the army, or whom he could assemble, with their splendid and majestic insignia and dresses, carrying the symbols of their religion, and particularly the image which was considered the protectress of Smolensko, and which was believed to have been miraculously saved from the sacrilegious French,—marched before him. Kutusof, as soon as his soldiers were sufficiently acted upon by the spectacle, appealed to their patriotism, their superstition, and their hatred of the French. Thus, a tincture of fanaticism was given to their courage. "All,

even to the meanest soldier, fancied themselves devoted by God himself to the defence of heaven and their consecrated soil."

The position of the Russians was chosen with great judgement and skill: naturally strong, it was rendered more so by art. A terrace, thirty or forty feet above the Kalouga, a small stream tributary to the Moskva, falling in front with a gentle descent, and extending three or four English miles, formed the centre of their position. The right flank was protected by the river, and was otherwise so strong, that the French did not think it prudent to attack it. The left was protected by a deep ravine, beyond which was a height occupied by three redoubts; besides this, two knolls, covered with batteries, strengthened the left centre: these commanded the whole field. The village of Borodino lay below. On the other side of the river, the French occupied an eminence, extending from a point opposite the Russian centre, and reaching round their left; their ground was higher, but not so much more elevated as to afford any command within cannon-range. Their right was strengthened by two batteries. The battle lasted three days, the 5th, 6th, and 7th of September. On the first day, the French carried the redoubts on the height which protected the left wing of the Russians. On the next day, Bonaparte changed his plan, and directed his efforts against their centre. A dreadful fire, poured down the long natural glacis from a double range of artillery, carried dreadful destruction among the French, but did not damp their impetuous valour. Early in the morning, they carried the village of Borodino, advanced, and made three desperate charges up the heights: they were driven back each time with immense slaughter. They then directed their attacks on the left, where the Rus-

sians were weak, in consequence of the loss of the redoubts on the first day; and the enemy succeeded in their object. The third day, they gained possession of the ground on which the left wing of the Russians had stood. Thus terminated this dreadful and sanguinary battle. During the night, the Russians retreated unmolested. The loss was nearly equal: at least 63,000 bodies were left for interment. During the whole of this engagement, Bonaparte seems to have been paralysed. Surrounded by his young guard, he kept at a distance; and no representations of the danger in which his own army was placed, made any impression upon him. He would not permit his guard to quit him, though he was assured, at various times, that a decisive victory only waited their assistance. When he was told that from all sides it was the cry, that the moment for sending the guard was now come, he replied, "And if there should be another battle to-morrow, where is my army?" The field of battle presented a horrible appearance;—"a gloomy sky, a cold rain, a violent wind, houses burned to ashes, a plain covered with ruins and rubbish, soldiers roaming about in all directions, hunting for provisions even in the haversacks of their dead companions, and silent bivouacks, in which reigned a gloomy taciturnity." Round the eagles were seen a few officers and soldiers, scarcely sufficient to protect them; their clothes torn in the fury of the combat, blackened with powder, and spotted with blood. Numbers were found at the bottom of the ravines, into which they had crawled to protect themselves from the weather.

The Russians retreated to Mojaisk, pursued by Murat; here their rear-guard took up a position which covered the Moscow and Kalouga roads. Murat endeavoured to drive them from it; and while

the skirmish lasted, Bonaparte arrived, but in such a state of abstraction, that he neither seemed to hear the noise of the engagement, nor that of the bullets which were falling close to him. Some one stopped him, and pointed out the rear-guard of the Russians between him and the town, and, on the heights behind, the fires of an army of 50,000 men—a decisive proof of the incompleteness of his victory, and of the confidence of the enemy. On the 9th of September, the Russians having left Mojaisk, the French entered it; but they found neither inhabitants nor provisions,—merely dead bodies and wounded men. Soon afterwards, the Russian army again put itself in motion, without leaving any traces by which the French could follow them. When it was ascertained that they had taken the road to Moscow, part of the French army, under the command of Murat and Mortier, went in pursuit of them. For two days, during which they had no provisions but bruised wheat and horse-flesh, they found not a single person or thing by which to discover the Russian army. Kutusof did not halt till he reached Fili, in front of Moscow; here he took up a position, and informed Rostopchin, the governor of the city, that he would perish with him before it. The Russian army at this time consisted of 91,000 men, 6,000 of whom were Cossacks, 20,000 recruits, and the rest veteran troops. The French army, which had numbered about 130,000 before the battle of Borodino, consisted now only of 90,000 men, with 607 pieces of cannon, but it had no more ammunition than would suffice for one engagement.

It is a principle with the Russian, as with all despotic and short-sighted governments, to keep the people in ignorance of the real state of affairs: the retreat of their army, therefore, and the advance of the

French, were events of which, in Moscow, they were utterly ignorant, even a very few days before their capital was to become the prey of the enemy and of the flames, and the inhabitants were to be ordered to desert their houses. It is said, that the governor himself was deceived by the message he received from Kutusof; and that he was astonished and incensed when he very shortly afterwards was informed, that in a council of war it had been determined to abandon the capital without a battle. This latter statement, however, is doubtful, since he had certainly made preparations for the burning of Moscow, such as he could not have made between the receipt of this last intelligence and his own departure from it. On Sunday, the 13th September, the Russian army, in full retreat, entered the city. Dread, confusion, and despair seized the inhabitants: they issued in crowds by the gate of Kalomna, flying in all directions across the country. On the following morning, the police and officers of government took their departure; the prisons were thrown open, and none were left but the few that were unable to fly, and those who remained for plunder, or to execute the orders of the governor. About five o'clock on Monday evening, the advanced guard of the French, under Murat, arrived, and immediate possession was taken of the Kremlin. Before night, Bonaparte arrived at the gate of Smolensko, where he waited, expecting a deputation from the municipality, as he had been wont whenever he entered any captured town; but none came. On sending to inquire the reason, he was told, Moscow was deserted. He sent one of his generals to make further search and inquiries. "Not a Muscovite was to be seen; not the least smoke rose from a single chimney; not the slightest noise issued from this immense and

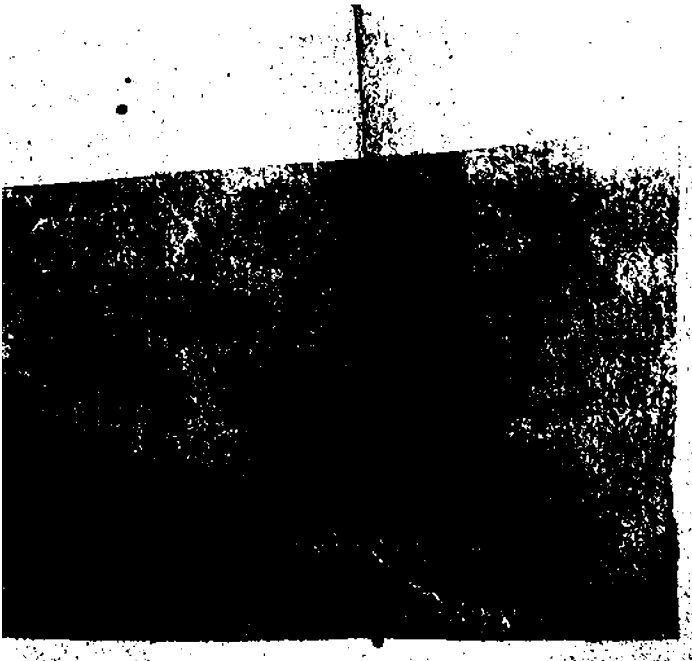
populous city: its 300,000 inhabitants seemed to be struck dumb and motionless by enchantment; it was the silence of the desert.'

'In the course of this night, Mortier pointed out to him smoke issuing from houses closely shut up, untouched and uninjured without. Shortly afterwards, flames were seen in other quarters. By Tuesday evening they had assumed a very serious aspect: all efforts to stop them were in vain. Flames appeared in so many quarters, that troops employed to stop the conflagration were distracted; and while thus employed, they were surrounded and in great and immediate danger. Doubts had at first been entertained, whether the conflagration was accidental or not; but now it was known certainly to be intentional. The wind, indeed, blowing strong, first from one quarter, and then from another, favoured the designs of the incendiaries. On Saturday morning, the wind fell, the smoke gradually cleared off, and the extent of the desolation became visible.

We have not hesitated to ascribe the conflagration of Moscow to the governor. At first, it was represented as the work of the French; but, from the authorities given by Dr. Lyall, it appears to have been undoubtedly a plan premeditated by Rostopchin. His motive was patriotic; his object, to render Moscow totally unfit for the winter quarters of the enemy; and in this he completely succeeded. At the same time, it is known that the French themselves, before their departure, sprang many mines, and thus added to the destruction of a place they could not retain. Dr. Lyall says: "From all accounts, we shall probably be very near the truth in concluding, that 7,000 *numeros*, or courts, were destroyed in 1812; and that these numeros contained 7,000 principal edifices,

and at least 14,000 structures, making a grand sum total of 21,000 buildings." The destruction of the Semlianoiogorod was so general, that, in a circuit of fifteen versts, not more than fifty habitable houses remained. The destruction of the finest and most magnificent division of Moscow, the Beloigorod, was not quite so general. The Kitaigorod was burning six days without intermission. In the Kremlin, the new imperial palace alone escaped the prey of the flames. None of the hospitals, but all the public education establishments, prey to the flames. Within a very few months after the French left Moscow, orders were given to clear away the rubbish, and the rebuilding began immediately: thousands of workmen were employed in every street and lane; and Moscow at present presents no traces of the dreadful calamity of 1812. It is rebuilt with great regard to taste and consistency, so as no longer to present such numerous and strong contrasts of palaces and huts as it did before the fire: the Kremlin alone preserves entire its ancient singularity and Asiatic grandeur.

The dreadful truth soon forced itself on the mind of Bonaparte, that he could not remain in Moscow: a Russian winter was approaching, and they had neither shelter, fuel, nor provisions, to meet it. In vain he expected the peasants to bring provisions and fuel into the city; they avoided it as a pest-house. He durst not venture to scatter his troops in the adjacent country, as the Russian army was at hand and in strength; nor, indeed, if he had ventured, would they have been able to collect much from a district exhausted and laid waste. He attempted to negotiate, and for this purpose sent Lauriston to St. Petersburgh, and obtained an armistice; but the



Engd on Steel. ..by H. Adlard

IMPERIAL PALACE OF PETROVSKOI, NEAR MOSCOW.

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delay proved injurious only to himself. It was the policy of the Russians to protract his stay, and to feed him with false hopes, till the winter set in. At length, when too late, his eyes were opened to his real situation. Alexander was inflexible; and the armistice was terminated by an attack on Murat, which destroyed half the remnant of his cavalry. Before daylight on the 19th of October Napoleon quitted Moscow, leaving orders to set fire to the Kremlin, which, however, were only partially obeyed.*

The narrative of this work fortunately does not require that we should dwell on the particular miseries of this most dreadful and unparalleled retreat. Every circumstance that could inflict misery, co-operated against the French army: intense frost, roads nearly impassable, a deserted and exhausted country; an enemy constantly on the alert to attack where they could do it with advantage, and to cut off all who from weakness or other causes were obliged to separate from the main body; the French themselves weak, dispirited, with insufficient and unwholesome food, often without any; the inclemency of the weather, and the attacks of the enemy increasing as

* The annexed Plate represents the palace of Petrovskoi, where Napoleon passed the dreadful night of the 16th, having with difficulty escaped from the burning Kremlin. It is described by Dr. Clarke as a large brick building, wearing an appearance of great magnificence, though the style of architecture is cumbrous and heavy. "It was erected for the accommodation of the Russian sovereigns during their visits to Moscow; the inhabitants of which city pretend that none of them durst take up a lodging within its walls, being kept more in awe of their subjects than they are at St. Petersburgh." This boast can be maintained no longer. Since Napoleon occupied the palace of the czars, Moscow has been made the residence of the Emperor Alexander.

they grew less able to resist or endure them. The French bore up most wonderfully under this accumulation of misery; they even repulsed the enemy in most of the attacks. The example of their leaders, and the hopes of finding all their wants supplied at Smolensko, supported their spirits. Till the 6th of November, the air, though extremely cold, had been clear. On that day, all the horrors of a Russian winter, its thick fogs, its tremendous tempests of wind and snow, assailed them. [illegible] this was dreadful; but during a night of sixteen [illegible] without shelter, fire, or food, their condition cannot be imagined. From this day, confidence and discipline, which had hitherto remained in a great degree, deserted them, and thus the evils of the retreat were augmented. On the 9th of November, Bonaparte entered Smolensko with about 60,000 men; many of them unarmed and unfit for duty. There he halted three days: longer he durst not remain, as Kutusof was advancing. He reckoned upon finding in the city fifteen days' provisions and forage for 100,000 men; there was not more than half the quantity of flour, rice, and spirits, and no meat at all; and a great part of these were destroyed in the attempts of the famishing and disorganised soldiers to tear them from one another. He now looked forward to his depôts at Minsk and Wilna; but on the 16th of November, the Russians entered the former, and took possession of all his magazines. The intelligence seemed for a time completely to overpower him; but he soon recovered his firmness and presence of mind. He had immediate occasion for these qualities, for he was informed that two hostile armies cut off his retreat. It was necessary, without loss of time, to secure the passage of the Berezina. When he arrived there, on the 24th

of November, he found its banks lined with a Russian army. However, he succeeded in gaining the opposite bank, with a dreadful loss of men, and in the midst of scenes of greater misery than perhaps ever accompanied any event. On the 5th of December, Bonaparte left his army. Henceforward, to use the words of Segur, whose narrative we have chiefly followed, "it was no longer any thing but a multitude of isolated and individual struggles. Henceforward, there was no longer fraternity in arms; there was an end to all society, to all ties; the excess of suffering had brutalised them. Hunger, devouring hunger, had reduced these unfortunate men to the brutal instinct of self-preservation." Scarcely had the deserted army reached Wilna, and begun to seize on the magazines there, when the cannon of the Russians was heard. Murat and the rest of the generals in vain endeavoured to collect the troops; they were more intent on plundering the magazines and sheltering themselves from the cold, than on repulsing the enemy. The cry, however, "Here are the Cossacks!" roused them, not to fight, but to fly. This cry, indeed, for a long time had been the only signal which the greater number obeyed. Ney attempted in vain to rally them; he was obliged to join in the flight, which was continued till, on the 13th of December, they reached the frontiers of Prussian Poland.

The total amount of the destruction of human life occasioned by this unprincipled invasion of Russia, it is impossible to calculate; and it is equally in vain to endeavour to form any adequate conception of the intensity and extent of suffering to which it gave rise. The French troops who entered Russia, either with Bonaparte or afterwards, certainly amounted to upwards of 500,000; and there is good reason to believe

that not more than 20,000 reached the frontiers. The peculiar character of the Russians appeared in a striking manner during this invasion. Their devotion to their emperor, the authority of the landholders over their peasants, and the influence of the priests, were all brought into action, as well as the credulity, ignorance, and superstition of the great body of the people. The French were profoundly ignorant of the state and character of the nation they invaded. They vainly expected the Russian peasants would join the ranks of their invaders: disappointed in this, they exasperated them by the most dreadful outrages, and thus added to their enthusiasm. In many places, the peasantry anticipated the orders of their lords, and placing their wives and children in security, and forsaking their homes, pressed forward in the service of their country. The nobility displayed a spirit of earnestness and devotion not inferior: their contributions in money were immense. In the government of Moscow alone, 80,000 men were enrolled under the name of militia; and throughout the whole empire, it is supposed 900,000 were levied under the same denomination. All these were to be clothed, armed, and furnished with provisions for three months, at the expense of the seigneur on whose estate they were raised.

According to the regular military system of the Russian Government, the ordinary recruiting is light; only one man out of 250 being taken each year. But soon after the conclusion of the war, Alexander organised what are called military colonies, in the crown villages. The males above fifty are chosen master-colonists; each of these receives about forty acres of land, on condition that he support a soldier and his family. This soldier, who assists him in his labour, is

called an agricultural soldier. These already form the effective force of the colonies, and in time will form that of the empire; they are exercised at least three days each week. There is, besides, a reserve soldier for each agricultural soldier, who, like the latter, works on the farm, or in any occupation, and is instructed in every part of a soldier's duty; he is obliged to supply the place of the agricultural soldier, when he dies, or has completed his service of twenty-five years, and to form one in an army of reserve, when it is needed. The sons of the master colonist, agricultural soldier, and reserve, called cantonists, are exercised as soldiers from the age of thirteen to seventeen; the boys from eight to thirteen go to school three days a week, and learn their military duties the alternate days. Dr. Lyall, who has published a pamphlet on these military colonies, calculates, that there are six million of crown peasants in the empire; so that, if this system is persevered in, Russia will have, besides its present army, a million of men, almost as good soldiers as those of the regular army, and a never-failing nursery, from which this enormous multitude may be regularly and constantly recruited; and he mentions a Russian nobleman, who boasted, that in thirty years, by the plan of military colonisation, Russia would have an army of 6,000,000 soldiers. Happily for civilisation, though a supply of men is one requisite in warfare, money is another not less essential. The poverty of Russia at present secures Europe against the danger of her preponderance. This grand machine of 6,000,000 effective men, it has been remarked, "renders Russia invulnerable to any attack from without; but it is immovable beyond the frontier, without such sums of money as she can neither supply nor command." Add to which, Russia

has few officers, except Generals Sacken, Wittgenstein, and Woronzoff, who know how to manœuvre a body of 20,000 men.

The routes from Moscow to Tobolsk, and thence to Kamschatka and the frontiers of China; that from Moscow, through the countries watered and enriched by the Dnieper, the Don, and the Volga, to the Black Sea, the Sea of Azof, and the Caspian; the routes in the Crimea, in the districts which lie between the Sea of Azof and the Caspian; and the routes in the Caucasus and Georgia; offer to the observation of the traveller all that is interesting and important in the southern and eastern divisions of this immense empire. The eastern route differs most essentially, in one respect, from any and all of the southern routes we have enumerated; for, after passing Tobolsk, a wild, uncultivated country, an inhospitable climate, and a scanty population, very little raised above the rank of savages, every where meet our observation; whereas in journeying from Moscow to the Black Sea, the Sea of Azof, and the Caspian, and through the Crimea, we gradually advance towards a much finer climate, a fertile soil, and races of people in many respects more interesting than the Russians of the northern provinces. When we pass, indeed, into the southern Asiatic dominions of Russia, we again meet with savage tribes; but this is compensated, in most places, by the rich, picturesque, or sublime scenery which nature presents. We may add, that on the borders of the Black Sea, in the Crimea, in the Caucasus and Georgia, almost every step the traveller takes, places him in the midst of ground that has been trodden by the Greeks or the Romans; presenting to him some vestige of their

power, or some spot described by their writers. We shall first pursue the route from Moscow to Azof, taking Dr. Clarke principally for our guide, with occasional assistance from Dr. Lyall and other travellers.

FROM MOSCOW TO AZOF.

THE state of the roads, and the appearance of the country, differ so widely, in Russia, in winter and in summer, that it is proper to premise, that Dr. Clarke left Moscow on the 31st of May, 1800. He found the roads in the immediate vicinity of Moscow very good. Voronetz was the first place of consequence to which he directed his course. At thirty-three versts from the capital is Podolsk, a small town, pleasantly situated on both banks of the river Pakhra (written by Dr. Clarke, Mockra). The second day, he passed through Serpukov, "a handsome little town," upon the river Nara, four versts from its confluence with the Oka, and ninety-three versts south of Moscow. In situation, appearance, and surrounding scenery, it is described as resembling Newmarket. It contains a citadel, enclosed by a strong rampart. In the churchyard, Dr. Clarke observed several female natives "practising a custom which is purely oriental, namely, that of visiting the sepulchres of friends long buried, touching the graves with their foreheads, weeping aloud, and uttering short prayers." In the villages on this road, as well as in other parts of Russia, the traveller may have frequent opportunities of observing the game called by the English peasants *dibbs*, played with the small joint-bones of a sheep, ranged along the back of the hand and arm, and then thrown up and caught; it seems to have been a favourite game with the ancient Greeks, and is repre-

sented on some of their finest vases. The Russian boys and girls are very fond of this pastime, and sometimes even the old men may be seen engaged in it.

On the 3d of June, Dr. Clarke reached Tula, "the Sheffield of Russia," and one of the most interesting cities in the empire. The town itself, as seen from the elevated plain above it, is a noble object, with its numerous white buildings, domes, towers, and rising spires. "Trees appeared skirting the suburban downs, and spreading here and there into the valley, while cattle were grazing in the surrounding pastures; at the same time our ears were greeted with the cheerful sounds of industry, issuing from different manufactories; with the ringing of bells, the lowing of the herds, and a loud chorus of peasants, singing their national airs, who accompanied their voices either with the clapping of hands, or with the wild notes of rustic pipes, constructed of the same materials as the sandals on their feet (the birch or linden bark). Numerous caravans were moreover passing from the Ukraine and the Don; and the whole of this lively scene exhibited so striking a contrast to what we had long been accustomed to witness in the frigid regions of the north, that we seemed suddenly transported to a different zone." Tula is the chief town of a district to which it gives its name, distant 909 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 185 from Moscow. It is built on both sides of the Upa, in a situation partly low and partly elevated; and is divided into three districts, which, together with the suburbs, inhabited by the post-boors, communicate with each other by a number of wooden and stone bridges. The population is estimated at 30,000 or 35,000; the number of houses at 5,000. It contains a monastery, a nunnery, and twenty-six churches, all of stone. This town is chiefly

distinguished for its manufacture of arms, knives, inkstands, and all sorts of cutlery and works in polished steel. There are very considerable iron mines in the neighbourhood, which are wrought with great ease and at little expense, as the whole of the soil is impregnated with iron, and not more than fourteen inches of sand or mould lie above the ore. These mines supply the celebrated forges of Demidof, thirteen miles from Tula, as well as furnish part of the raw material to Tula itself. They were discovered about the end of the sixteenth century; and soon afterwards, a small manufactory of fire-arms and small-arms was established in one of the suburbs of the town. Peter the Great, however, first gave system and extent to this manufactory. The whole fabric was re-established and improved by Catherine II. in 1785. Even Paul, in the midst of his vagaries and madness, protected and encouraged it; and Alexander pays it particular attention. At the beginning of the eighteenth century, only 664 workmen were employed; in the reign of Catherine, upwards of 5,000; and during the last war, 7,000. The manufacturers are divided into five trades; barrel-makers, lock-makers, stock-makers, furnishing-makers, and makers of small-arms. They all enjoy peculiar privileges, constitute a separate body, and have their own judges among themselves. At present, they can manufacture 50,000 stand of arms annually, and, in case of necessity, 100,000. We have already stated, that part of the iron used at Tula is supplied by the mines in the neighbourhood: the crown works, however, exclusively use Siberian iron. In the year 1817, the Emperor Alexander employed an Englishman to examine the government of Tula for coal. It was found in different parts, and some very conveniently situated

for the manufactories of Tula; but in consequence, Dr. Lyall asserts, of the influence of the proprietors of the forests, who would have suffered by its introduction, it was represented as unfit for the purpose of the arm fabric, and the intention of using it was abandoned. There are few woods in the neighbourhood, and yet they produce sufficient fuel for the consumption of the place, which Dr. Clarke attributes to the very great economy introduced by the use of stoves: "for the heating of these, a few billets, merely kindled early in the morning, suffice; an equal warmth being afterwards diffused during the whole day and following night." The quality of the arms and cutlery made at Tula, has been variously represented. By Mr. Tooke and some foreign authors, they are represented as equal to the English. Dr. Clarke, on the contrary, says: "The work is strong, but very bad, and will not bear the smallest comparison with our English wares." And of the arms particularly, he reports: "The name of musket is almost all that connects the appearance with the reality. It is wonderful any troops can use them: they miss fire five times out of six, and are liable to burst whenever discharged." Dr. Lyall's statement differs from all these writers; and we are disposed to depend on his judgement. He says: "No man with the least knowledge of fire-arms, cutlery, or what is called *finish*, would compare the manufactures of Tula with those of Birmingham or Sheffield. In every respect they are far inferior. At the same time, they by no means deserve the character given them by Dr. Clarke. It must be admitted, however, that their quality is much improved since he was at Tula; but, had the fire-arms made then been as bad as he represents them, the campaign of 1812," as Dr. Lyall remarks, "would not

have been so bloody, or rather would not have been fought." The arsenal is capable of containing fire-arms for 100,000 troops.

Dr. Clarke, on leaving Tula, quitted the main-road to Cherson, and turned off to the south, towards Voronetz. Dr. Lyall proceeded towards Odessa and Cherson. At present we shall accompany the former Traveller. The whole distance to Voronetz, he compares to a bowling-green: a vast plain, covered all the way with a fine, hard turf, "exactly resembling that which covers the South Downs in Sussex, with the additional advantage of being for the most part level, extends like an ocean, in which the eye discovers no object to interrupt the uniformity of the view." This is part of that great oriental plain which extends from Moscow to Tobolsk in Siberia, and throughout all the southern provinces of Russia; it is generally without wood, and totally unenclosed. Near Tula, there are small copses or patches, containing dwarf-oaks,—the first Dr. Clarke had seen since he entered Russia from Sweden, excepting a single tree in a garden at Moscow, shewn there as a rare plant.

Twenty miles from Tula, he arrived at *Dedilof*, a miserable village, inhabited by peasants living in the greatest poverty. The whole district is swampy, and subterraneous waters had recently penetrated the ground on which many of the houses stood, when they all gave way, and the upper part of the village was changed into a lake. The sole occupation of the peasantry is tillage. This part of Russia, indeed, is very fertile. Near the town of Boghoroditz, the next place at which he arrived, nothing is seen but corn-land, covering a vast extent; it is the richest district in the empire. The roads are excellent: waggons, laden with stones, pass and repass upon wooden wheels,

without any iron tires. There is a magnificent seat belonging to a nobleman, whose estate comprises sixteen square miles of the finest corn-land in Russia, and was said to contain 70,000 peasants. At Celo Nikotskoi, the next station, Dr. Clarke saw a curious funeral ceremony. "The lid of the coffin, formed of one entire piece of wood, scooped out like a canoe, was not put on till the deceased was laid in his grave. They buried him in all his wearing apparel, even with the sandals on his feet. Mead was carried to the grave, to be drunk there, in a bowl, with a number of small wax bougies stuck around the rim. The women kept up a kind of musical ululation, howling their loud lamentations in strains truly dolorous. The rest of the attendants, instead of joining in the dirge or in the other ceremonial rites, were occupied in crossing themselves, and in prostrations towards the east, bowing their heads until they touched with their foreheads the other graves near the place of interment. The lid of the coffin was borne first, covered with linen cloth: after this followed the lower part, containing the body, so that it seemed as if two coffins were carried to one grave." In the plains over which he was now travelling, he observed at a considerable distance, a spectacle similar to one that Bruce witnessed in Africa; vertical columns of sand, reaching, in appearance, from the earth to the clouds, and moving with amazing rapidity. His servant related an instance of a child who was taken up by one of these sand tornadoes in the Ukraine, and after being whirled by it, had every limb broken in its fall. Hitherto our Traveller had passed only villages since his departure from Tula; but he next arrived at a large, paved town, called Eletz, situated on a river of the same name, and on the Sosma, branches of the Don. It is

surrounded with a fertile district, in which agriculture flourishes, and enjoys a considerable trade in honey, leather, cattle, and corn; it is also celebrated for its forges, part of the iron for which is furnished from mines in the vicinity, part from mines on the eastern banks of the Don. Soon after leaving this town, caravans from that river, the Crimea, and other parts of Southern Russia, were continually met; they generally consisted of a train of waggons, thirty or forty in number, laden with dried fish, wool, brandy, corn, &c.; sometimes of cattle only, cows of an ash colour, horses, goats, sheep, and hogs. Near Zadonetz, a town situated upon a hill overlooking the Don, that river is crossed by a ferry. It is here a broad, clear, and rapid current. From this place, the road leads through "the sweetest country imaginable, covered with woods, full of flowers, fruit-trees, and a number of plants, plainly indicating an approach to warmer climates. Apple and other fruit-trees sprouted wild, among young oaks, and other vegetable productions not found nearer to the North Pole."

On June 7, Dr. Clarke arrived at Voronetz. This city is situated on a river of the same name, near its junction with the Don. Here Peter the Great built his first ship of war. At that time it consisted of scarcely 100 wooden huts; it is now a handsome town, with 15,000 inhabitants, and carries on a very extensive and lucrative commerce, principally with the Black Sea, and in the winter, by sledges, with the Crimea and Turkey. Its merchants travel even into Siberia for furs, which they carry to the great German fairs. The climate of the surrounding country is delightful; the water-melon is as common as the cucumber in England, and of excellent quality. Yet, the extremes of temperature are great; varying from 30° of cold

of Reaumur in winter, to 28° of heat in summer, or 95° Fahrenheit. The swamps below the town render the place unhealthy in the hot season.

As Dr. Clarke advanced towards the south, caravans of Malo-Russians were more frequently met, whom he describes as a finer race than the Russians; "cleaner, more industrious, more honest, more generous, more polite, and more courageous," but withal, "much given to drinking." Their language differs from the Russian, only as the dialect of the South of France does from that spoken near Paris. Malo-Russia, or Little Russia, the original and proper country of these people, comprehends the Ukraine and the three governments of Kiev, Tchernigof, and Novogorod Sieverskoi; but colonies of Malo-Russians are found in several parts of the south. The manifest difference between them and the Russians cannot be ascribed to climate, as they are separated from each other only by a few miles, but is most probably the effect of their different political condition. The Malo-Russians are not *astricti glebæ*, and enjoy other peculiar immunities.

To the south of Voronetz, the country still continues level; the plains are adorned with a rich variety of flowers, and the air is filled with beautiful insects. As Dr. Clarke approached the Don, turtle-doves flew round his carriage; the pools were filled with wild fowl, and numerous herds or flocks were seen passing or grazing. Melons of different sorts flourish in the cultivated grounds near the villages; yet, the winter is severe, the snow annually affording a sledge road all the way from the Gulf of Finland to the Sea of Azof. At Lokova Sloboda, Dr. Clarke had an opportunity of examining the Malo-Russians in an establishment of their own, and of marking the

contrast between their manners and those of the Russians. Their cottages, which are all white-washed, are so clean and neat, both within and without, that "the traveller might fancy himself transported from Russia to Holland." Their furniture is simple but also clean. They have poultry and plenty of cattle, and well-stocked gardens. In short, all about them bears testimony to their industry and civilisation. From the similarity which they, as well as the Cossacks, bear to the Poles, Dr. Clarke is disposed to regard them as all derived from one common stock. The dress of the women displays considerable taste; that of the men in some respects resembles the dress of the Scotch Highlanders. Among their musical instruments, they have the bagpipe and the Jew's harp.

On the eastern bank of the Don, which our Traveller now approached, he found a variety of beautiful plants. In the extensive low woods adjacent, nightingales abound, and a kind of frog, not known in the north of Europe, the croaking of which is very like the cry of the old English harrier. Great numbers of pelicans were also seen on the banks of the river: vast flights of this bird, accompanied by swans, cranes, storks, and geese, arrive annually from the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof. The water-melon, which is cultivated here as an article of commerce for the markets of Moscow and St. Petersburgh, is planted in open fields, covering whole acres of land. Just before his arrival within the territory of the Don Cossacks, our Traveller came to a village situated in the most wild and open *steppes*. Steppe is the name given in the south of Russia to such plains as, though susceptible of cultivation, have never been tilled: they are covered with wild plants, and in many respects resemble the *prairies* of America. In winter, their

appearance is very bleak; but in summer, they have the aspect of a wild, continued meadow, with herbage knee-high, and full of flowers. No one collects or cuts this herbage. They are of vast extent: that above the sea of Azof is more than 400 miles in length. Their elevation is considerable. The soil in general is good; always light and sandy. Saline spots and salt-lakes are not unfrequent in them. One of the most barren is situated near Astrakan: it is really a desert, presenting a boundless surface of arid sand. In a few cases they are intersected by rivers, and wherever this occurs, there are villages and a numerous population. But some are totally destitute of water, and are consequently uninhabitable.

Kasankaia is one of the largest settlements of the Don Cossacks, and the first within their own territory at which Dr. Clarke arrived. He describes their appearance and manners in glowing colours. "His dignified and majestic look," he says, "his elevated brows and dark mustaches, his tall helmet of black wool, terminated by a crimson sack, with its plume, laced festoon, and white cockade; his upright posture; the ease and elegance of his gait; give to the Don Cossack an air of great importance. There is no nation in the world more neat in regard to dress; and whether young or old, it appears to become them all. A quiet life seems quite unsuited to their disposition; they loiter about, having then no employment to interest them, and being devoted to war, seemed distressed by the indolence of peace." In no respect do they resemble the Russians, except in professing the same religion and speaking the same language: they are all free, open in their manners, hospitable, brave, and cleanly. Their chief riches consist in their cattle and their horses: those who live near the Don are

also great fishers. They cultivate the vine, from which they make red and white wine, some of excellent quality. At each *stanitza* (station), there is an *ataman*, or chief, who is elected annually, and to whom, while acting officially, the greatest respect is paid: at other times, he passes unheeded among them. The ataman-general is appointed by the emperor: formerly his power was very great.

The territory of the Don Cossacks forms a distinct government, 2,976 geographical square miles in extent, with a population of 318,900, consequently 107 to each square mile. They pay no taxes, but furnish a certain quota of troops, who are maintained at their own expense, except when they pass the frontiers of Russia. There are various tribes of Cossacks besides the Cossacks of the Don: the most numerous and celebrated are, the Malo-Russian Cossacks, or Cossacks of the Ukraine, the Cossacks of the Black Sea, of the Volga, of Grebenskoy, of Orenburgh, of the Ural mountains, and of Siberia. The history of the Cossacks is involved in some obscurity: it is certain, however, that 900 years ago, they were represented by the Byzantine historians as a distinct people. The most probable account is, that they are a Slavonic race who originally inhabited the country near Caucasus, and who, owing to circumstances which are very obscurely and variously related, migrated to the district at present inhabited by the Don Cossacks. Before the middle of the tenth century, they had certainly reached the frontiers of Poland. From the vicinity of the Don, they emigrated or were transplanted by the Russian sovereigns to the different countries from which they receive their respective appellations. The most powerful detachment from the original hive, is established on the shores of the Caspian, having left the

Don at the beginning of the fifteenth century. Another numerous detachment marched towards the east in the following century, crossed the Ural mountains, and discovered and conquered Siberia.

From Kasankaia, Dr. Clarke proceeded to their capital. The route lay for the most part across extensive and barren steppes, where dromedaries were seen feeding, "the sole tenants of these wild pastures." Innumerable wild animals, however, of a smaller race, inhabit these immense plains. One which particularly arrested our Traveller's attention, called by the natives *suroke* (the *arctomys bobac* of zoologists), is the size of a badger, resembles the bear in its manner and appearance, burrows under ground to a great extent, devours almost every thing it finds, and is in a state of torpor half the year. These animals are often kept tame; but even then they retire for six months to their holes, from which no enticement can draw them forth. They will sit upright and beg for bread and herbs, of which they are very fond. They make a very loud whistling noise on the slightest alarm. On these steppes, a little animal called *suslic*, supposed to be the *mus citillus* of Buffon, is also very common: its noise is like that of the *suroke*, but it is much smaller. It constructs under ground an ingenious habitation, impervious to moisture, in one part of which it deposits every morning and evening its food, corn, roots, or herbage. To this it retires on the approach of winter, closing the entrance with sand. In order to catch it, water, to which it has a great antipathy, is poured into its burrows: its greatest enemy is the falcon. Wolves and bears are also common, and a quadruped called *biroke*, "something like a wolf, very ferocious, and daring enough to attack men."

The town of Axay, the next place of importance which Dr. Clarke reached, is situated on the Don; it is a settlement of the Cossacks of Tcherkask, and the residence of an ataman. The river is here broad and rapid, extending towards flat and dreary marshes on the Asiatic side. This was the period of its annual inundation. In many respects it resembles the Nile. Both have the same regular annual inundations, spreading over a great extent of territory, the waters retiring in July or August. The same aquatic plants are found in both, and the same sorts of flies and other insects attend the retiring of the waters. The manner of their entering the sea by several mouths, forming small islands, is also the same; and, finally, as the one divides Africa from Asia, so, the other forms a boundary of Asia and Europe. The Don rises near Tula: its whole course is about 666 miles. Below Voronetz, it is from 600 to 1,200 yards broad, and, from the middle of April to the end of June, sufficiently deep for ships of burden. There are a great many shallows in it; and during the remainder of the year, there is not above eighteen inches of water over them. In the spring floods, it rises from sixteen to eighteen feet; the current is then very rapid. About twenty miles below Voronetz, close to the river, fossil elephant bones, similar to those found in Siberia, were discovered by Gmelen; they lie in the greatest disorder, some of them not mineralised, but in a state of partial decomposition. The antiquities of this river deserve a much more particular investigation than they have hitherto received. Dr. Clarke is disposed to think, that ancient history somewhat corroborates the tradition of the country, that Alexander the Great passed the Don, and built a city, 200 miles above Tcherkask, where the best Don wine

is now made. The boats on this river are mere canoes scooped from a single tree, navigated with a single paddle: sometimes two are fastened together by planks laid across. No river affords a greater number and variety of fish, among which are craw-fish, equal in size to our lobsters; the beluga, here seldom more than twelve feet long; the common sturgeon, sterlet, trout, pike, and the water tortoise.

Dr. Clarke embarked at Axay for Tcherkask, situated on the right bank of the Don, surrounded by a small river, and in a very marshy, unhealthy situation, the lower story of the houses being every year inundated. It is described as "somewhat resembling Venice;" not, however, in size or grandeur, but merely in its situation, and in the passage from house to house by means of boats. When Dr. Clarke visited it, it contained about 15,000 inhabitants, and exhibited a good deal of activity and industry: at present, its inhabitants do not exceed 2,000. In consequence of its unhealthy situation, and the annual loss of lives by the inundations, the Russian Government resolved, in 1807, to build a new town, and transport the inhabitants thither. New Tcherkask is situated on a hill, on the right bank of a river that falls into the Don, fifteen or sixteen versts from the old town. Dr. Lyall remarks, that it ought to have been built on the banks of the Don itself, as the river on which it stands is not navigable; but the influence of the celebrated Platoff, the ataman-general of the Don Cossacks, decided its situation. In 1822, the number of its inhabitants was estimated by Dr. Lyall at from 5,000 to 6,000.

Having returned to Axay, Dr. Clarke proceeded to descend the Don, and had a "delightful sail" to Nakhtshivan, an Armenian colony from the Crimea,

established about twenty years before his arrival, and already in a very flourishing state. The bazar contained about 400 shops. "As we approached the Armenian settlement," he says, "we beheld Tâtars, Turks, Greeks, Cossacks, Russians, Italians, Calmucks, and Armenians; these, together with our English party, formed a representation of the costume of nine different nations within the compass of a quarter of an English mile. The Tâtars were fishing in the river, or driving cattle towards the town; the Turks were smoking in their coffee-houses; the Greeks, a bustling race, were walking about, telling lies, and bartering merchandise; the Cossacks were scampering in all directions on horseback; the Russians, as police-officers, were scratching their heads; the Italians appeared as Venetian and Neapolitan sailors; the Calmucks jabbering with each other; the Armenians, both men and women, airing in *droskies*; and the English staring at them all. Towards the Don, and especially towards its embouchure, Tâtars are found in great numbers; and this race of men appears, in journeying hence westward, the whole way towards the Dnieper, in all the towns by the Sea of Azof, and in the Crimea, and throughout the dreary plains lying to the north of that peninsula.

"Nakhtshivan offers an example of that enterprising commercial spirit which is characteristic of Armenian merchants. They are not naturally a lively race of men. The Armenians are almost as grave as the Turks, and they have all the boorishness of Dutchmen, insomuch that this is a common saying with European merchants in Constantinople, 'A sportive Armenian is as awkward as a dancing bear.' Yet, instigated by commercial speculations, these men traverse all countries, and overcome suprising obstacles;

frequently making journeys to India and to the most distant regions of the earth. Their commodities and their manufactures, as far as we were enabled to judge of them, appeared to be Turkish, and of a nature to find a ready sale in Axay and in Tcherkask. They supply all the fairs of the neighbouring provinces; and these fairs afford the most extraordinary sights in Europe, because they are attended by persons from almost every nation. There is scarcely a nation, civilised or barbarous, which has not its representative at the fairs which are held along the Sea of Azof, and upon the Don; but particularly at the great fair of Nakhtshivan.

"Other Armenian settlements, belonging to the same district of Rastof, are in the neighbourhood, and all of them in a flourishing state. The Armenians are much respected in the country; their industry, their sobriety, and their general moral conduct, render them a most important acquisition to the Russian empire. Their whole population, however, including persons of both sexes, and all the Armenian settlements in the district, does not amount to 8,000."

The fortress of St. Demetry Rastof, where the governor both of Azof and Taganrog resides, is about a mile lower down the river. It was found in a state of deplorable neglect. Azof is a wretched and insignificant village, built on a high ridge, at the lower extremity of which is situated the fortress, if such it can be called: the works are in decay, and are commanded by the adjacent heights. "The meanest village in Kamschatka," Dr. Clarke says, "might dispute with Azof a title to notice." To reach Taganrog, which may be seen across the water, it is necessary to re-ascend a part of the river, and to proceed towards the sea by one of the mouths nearer to

Taganrog than that on which Azof is situated. With some difficulty, arising from boisterous weather, Dr. Clarke reached that branch of the river: the tide and current then carried them rapidly downward into the celebrated *Palus Mœotis*, which receives the waters of the Don from its thirteen mouths. "A remarkable phenomenon occurs during violent easterly winds: the sea retires in so singular a manner, that the people of Taganrog are able to effect a passage upon dry land to the opposite coasts, a distance of twenty versts (nearly fourteen miles); but, when the wind changes, (and this it does sometimes very suddenly,) the waters return with such rapidity to their wonted bed, that many lives are lost. The east wind often sets in with great vehemence, and continues for several weeks; they have also frequent gales from the west, but very rarely a wind due north; and hardly ever an instance occurs of its blowing from the south. This has been attributed to the mountainous ridge of Caucasus intercepting winds from that quarter."

Taganrog is situated on a cliff, commanding an extensive prospect of the Sea of Azof, in lat. 47° 12′ N., and long. 38° 39′ E. It was founded by Peter the Great soon after he took Azof, and it is said, that he intended it for the metropolis of the empire. He displayed little judgement in the selection of the site. The sea near it is so shallow, that vessels drawing eight or ten feet water, cannot approach nearer it than ten miles. Within a short time after its foundation, it is said to have contained 70,000 inhabitants, but in 1711, by a treaty between Turkey and Russia, it was rased to the ground. In 1774, having been definitively given up to the latter power, it began to revive. At present, its population is estimated at 9 or 10,000, and at 12,000 during summer, when the ships arrive. Its

inhabitants are a motley race, Russians, Tatars, Greeks, Germans, Italians, French, and English. No place in the south of Russia would be better situated for commerce, were it not for the want of water, and that only during three months in the year the sea is open and safe. While the commercial season lasts, however, trade is active and lucrative. The produce of Siberia, of Astrakan, &c., is brought here as to an entrepôt; the former down the Don, the latter by caravans. As soon as the first ships make their appearance from the Black Sea, these caravans begin to arrive, and in a short time, 6,000 waggons frequently cover the plains below the town, about half of them from the Ukraine. The number of vessels is generally from 6 to 700: one-half small craft from Trebisond and Sinope, with marmalade, raisins, &c., used in the distilleries. From the Archipelago, wine of a poor kind is brought, also used in the distilleries. There are few Russian traders. French wine, German and English cloth are brought in Ragusan, Austrian, and Maltese vessels. The principal exports are, caviare, butter, leather, tallow, corn, fur, canvass of bad quality, linen, wool, hemp, and iron. There are three fairs in the year; the second, which is the principal, is held on the 10th of August. Dr. Lyall, who travelled from New Tcherkask to Taganrog, represents the intervening country as hilly, with signs of cultivation, plantations, and corn-fields in the vicinity of the latter town. Several thousand cattle feed on the steppes which lie close to it: they are here of excellent soil, not only affording good pasture, but producing large oaks, crab-trees, and the plant from which the Spanish liquorice is made. Dr. Clarke was much struck with the great variety of nations observable among the inhabitants: to their credit, he states, that they were

not more remarkable in the exhibition of their various costume than for the harmony and friendship which prevailed amongst them. Each exercises his peculiar mode of worship, and follows his own customs. Fifteen nations were distinctly noticed by him; Russians, Greeks, Armenians, Nagay Tâtars, Calmucks, Cossacks, Germans, Poles, French, English, Turks, Italians, Malo-Russians, Prussians, and Hungarians. The Greeks compose nearly two-thirds of the population. In the year 1820, they had quarreled with the governor: the consequence of this quarrel, still existing when Dr. Lyall was there in 1822, was, that Taganrog was in a state of inactivity.

The ancient Greeks carried on an extensive and regular commerce in the Euxine and Palus Mæotis; a circumstance which led Dr. Clarke to expect to find on these shores some antiquarian remains worthy of notice: he could not, however, hear of any. *Tumuli*, indeed, abound on all the steppes; and in one of these had been discovered an arched vault shaped like an oven, "constructed of very large square bricks, and paved in a style of most exquisite workmanship with the same materials." Vaulted sepulchres have been found in other tumuli; and these, in the opinion of our Traveller, "render trivial the notions recently entertained and published respecting the antiquity of arches. The *tumuli* in which such appearances have been discovered, cannot be considered as of later date than the age of Alexander; and perhaps they are much more ancient." The question does not relate, however, to the antiquity of the *form* of the arch, which may be observed in many ancient structures, but to the acquaintance of the ancients with the *principle* of the arch. Such vague expressions as "arched vaults," especially when used on the strength of hear-

say information, prove nothing. It will remain for future travellers to ascertain the fact which the learned Traveller so hastily assumes.

From Taganrog, Dr. Clarke crossed the Sea of Azof to Chumburskaia, on the Asiatic side. This sea, surrounded on all sides by Russian territory, is united to the Black Sea by the Cimmerian Bosphorus: its greatest length, not including the bay of Taganrog, is 200 versts; its greatest breadth 160. Several considerable rivers besides the Don fall into it; of these, the most celebrated is the Cuban. From November to March, it is frozen, and navigation is seldom safe earlier than April. From this month to Midsummer, a south-west wind prevails, which increases the depth of the water. In Autumn, when this ceases, its greatest depth is seldom more than fourteen feet. The inhabitants maintain that its waters annually diminish.

FROM TULA TO CHERSON.

We must now go back to Tula, near which place the routes of Dr. Clarke and Dr. Lyall separated, in order to accompany the latter Traveller in his journey by way of Orel, Kiev, and Odessa, to Cherson.

The first place of note at which Dr. Lyall arrived after leaving Tula, bears the truly Russian name of *Mtsensk*: it is the chief town of one of the districts of the government of Orel, situated on a plain, but surrounded by hills, on two small rivers, branches of the Oka. The adjacent country is rich in meadows and corn-fields, but not in wood. The principal commerce, carried on by means of the Oka, consists in corn and hemp: the population is differently stated from 3,500 to 5,000. The town presents an imposing display of churches and monasteries gaudily painted, with gilded

domes; but the houses are mostly of wood. A fertile tract of country extends to Orel, the chief town of the government of the same name, situated at the confluence of the Oka and the Orlik. Most of the houses here, too, are of wood, but the churches are of stone and numerous; the population is about 15,000. "The soil all around Orel is black, and yields most abundant crops. This town may be reckoned the emporium of commerce between Russia, Little Russia, and the Crimea, and at the same time the *depôt* of corn, both of its own and the adjacent fertile governments. The principal articles of commerce are, corn, hemp, tallow, butter, bristles, leather, honey, wax, cloth, horned cattle: these are chiefly brought to Orel from the southern provinces, and wine from Little Russia, the Crimea, and the Don. This town may, indeed, be regarded as a *depôt* for these commodities; whence, by the Oka, they are sent to St. Petersburgh. One hundred and ninety-five versts and a half from Orel, a wooden pillar indicates to the traveller that he has entered the Ukraine and the government of Tchernigoff. Dr. Lyall was immediately struck, as Dr. Clarke had been, with the contrast between the Russians and the Malo-Russians: it seemed, he remarks, as if he had been transported into a new country. "The houses, unlike those of Russia Proper, which present their gables, front the road; and their exterior is white-washed. The interior is separated into kitchen, room, and bed-room even in small houses. The rooms are furnished with tables, chairs, and bedsteads of unpainted fir-wood, and over the beds we remarked white coverlets. At the post-house we found the *smotritel* (post-peasant) and his wife clean and orderly: they were greatly surprised at our examination of their house in detai

In a word, here, without and within, all had a most pleasing air of order, neatness, and cleanness." As he advanced into the Ukraine, further proof of the superiority of its inhabitants over those of Russia Proper, presented themselves in the neater manner of thatching their cottages. In Russia Proper, the peasants heap up quantities of straw on their roofs, without care or method, and young birch-trees are then laid over it in all directions: the consequence is, that, on a stormy night, whole villages are unroofed; but still they obstinately pursue the same method. The Little Russians, on the contrary, display some art and care in the thatching of their cottages.

The first town in Little Russia is Nejin, seventy-four versts S.E. of Tchernigoff, on the left bank of the Oster. It contains above 1,000 houses, two convents, sixteen churches, and a "splendid gymnasium." The houses are mostly of stone, or of wood covered with clay instead of plaster, stuck over with small pieces of brick, and white-washed. The principal street, contrary to what is generally the case in Russia, is narrow, and has quite a European appearance, being lined with shops, and crowded with people. Large gardens are intermixed with all the streets. The population, which Dr. Lyall estimates at 12,000, (a large number for 1,000 houses,) consists of Russians, Cossacks, Greeks, and Armenians. The merchants carry on a considerable traffic with Turkey, Poland, and Silesia. From Nejin to Nosovka, the road passes through enormous corn-fields and pasture lands, intermixed with wood; sometimes with ditches on each side, and sometimes lined with rows of willows. Rivulets, marshes, and swamps abound here, as in most parts of the south of Russia. At Nosovka, Dr. Lyall experienced the excellence of the Cossack

horses; four of them flew at full gallop, with his carriage, from this place to Kozari, in forty-five minutes, a distance of ten miles. Kozari, as well as Nosovka, is a Cossack station.

At Semipolki, a mean village, he re-entered the high road from St. Petersburgh to Kiev. To reach that city, it was necessary to cross the Dnieper, which had not yet returned to its channel after the spring flood; he was obliged, therefore, to cross several small lakes between islands, with the water up to the horses' girths, before he reached the place of embarkation upon the river, which he passed on a raft. Before, however, we accompany him further, we must return to Moscow, in order to pursue the route followed by Mr. James from that city to Kiev.

FROM MOSCOW TO KIEV.

It has already been mentioned, that Mr. James travelled in Russia about twelve months after the French invasion. From Moscow he proceeded to Smolensko; and though the distance is only 348 versts, the journey occupied six days, owing to the exhausted state of the country, the difficulty of procuring either horses or provisions, and the extreme badness of the roads, consequent on the late campaign. Roslavle is the next stage. Near this town, Mr. James witnessed the manner in which the Russian families of distinction travel from St. Petersburgh or Moscow to their residences in the more distant parts of the provinces. "Every native, when on a journey, carries with him his food, as well as other articles of which he may stand in need; and since it is usual with a Russian to take his own bed, even when visiting at a friend's house, it is not surprising that he

should be worse furnished for his route. Hence, neither bed nor board is to be met with; and the demand for such articles is viewed by the landlord of a public-house as something unreasonable." Nothing can be conceived more independent than the appearance of a patriarchal family party at halt. The one met with near Roslavle, had six carriages, which were ranged in a row by the road-side. "At a little distance a fire was lighted, round which a score of domestics were employed in cooking dinner; still further, under the shade of the trees, the father, with his children and several ladies, were seated regaling themselves on the provisions they had brought; and the horses, near thirty in number, were browsing hard by." Near a wretched wooden town, called Mglin, the traveller enters the government of Novogorod Sieverskoi. In that town Mr. James first observed the houses of Jewish settlers. Whenever he receded from any of the larger towns, nearly all traces of civilisation and improvement vanished. The country presents the appearance of one large plain intersected with rivers, bogs, and forests. The uplands are generally of a light, sandy soil, exhibiting few signs of culture, or even of habitation. "Nothing could be more strikingly wild," says Mr. James, "than our passage over the Ypoote. A raft of trees loosely pinned together, was provided for the purpose of transport; a rope made of the bark of trees served for its draught. On either bank of the river rose a vast forest, not thick and luxuriant, but bared in many a line by the progress of age and decay. Amidst its shades were seen the white shirts and black fur caps of the Tâtars, as they scampered along in the wantonness of sport, with their horses at full speed: their caravan, just arrived, was ranged on the river side,

and the oxen were seen every now and then, as the raft put off, plunging into the stream, and swimming to the opposite shore.

"In a country of this description, it cannot be expected that any great progress should have been made in the arts of civil life. Mechanical contrivances of any sort do but little to occupy the minds of the villagers. Their plough is the same as the rude instrument represented in Egyptian sculpture, or rather, that of the Georgics of Virgil; a wooden hook turned downwards, armed with iron, and sometimes with two twigs tied on the back as handles or tillers. Their harrows are simple hurdles, in which the ends of the twigs, being bent downwards, perform the office of teeth, for the land is every where extremely light. Boats of one piece, rudely hollowed from the trunk of a tree, are common both on the Soz and the upper bank of the Desna; and the only skill of workmanship which displayed itself, was in the carved work that ornamented the bodies of their carts or tilegas, and the gable-ends of their houses, which were sometimes very elaborately decorated.

"The interior of the dwellings was in the same unfinished style as what we had before seen: the walls of logs were not even lined with planks; the moss that calked the interstices, hung out in shreds and patches, nor was the appearance at all correspondent to the degree of attention which seemed to have been bestowed without. The whole family slept in the same room, on mats, or straw, or sheep-skins, and the men generally in their day-clothes; but the favourite station for the night was on the ledge of the stove, or *lejanka*, which is always raised with a few bricks on a slope at one extremity, in order to supply the place of

a pillow. Where an infant child was seen, it was packed with a few clothes on a square canvass frame, and suspended by strings to a nail in the wall or the ceiling: a horn, having a small aperture at the bottom, and closed at top, was filled with milk, that, being suspended over its head, it might indulge itself in sucking at pleasure. A sick person, whom we not unfrequently found lying in bed in this single apartment of their cottage, seemed to complete the picture of misery. Rye cakes, or black sour bread of the same grain, with a little salt to give it a flavour, formed their chief diet; to this was added cabbage broth, or *schtchi*, thickened with oatmeal, and perhaps a little meat. All this is procured at an easy rate; and during the several periods in which the rites of the Greek church prescribe certain rules of abstinence, (for these materially diminish the expense of the poor man's housekeeping,) their ordinary meals may be procured at a very reasonable price.

"The only attempt at manufacture to which I was an eye-witness, was the making of oil from linseed, the plant being much cultivated in these provinces. The stamper was a beam of wood, fastened to the branch of a tree, forced down by strength of hand, and recoiling again by the natural elasticity of the bough; a simple contrivance enough; but it is worth observing, how nearly this machine resembles in structure the apparatus even at this day used in our English oil mills.

"As to the moral effects of civilisation, such as a sense of modesty or delicacy, this was still less to be traced in their manners: men, women, and children were bathing promiscuously on the road-side, and very rarely indeed did they betray any wish to conceal

their nakedness on the approach of strangers. The same was the case at Moscow, only that, of the two, the people of the country possessed, perhaps, a greater portion of shamefacedness. They had in general brown, sallow complexions, but not of an unhealthy appearance; nor, except the marks of scrofula, or sometimes the limbs of a few persons crippled by the winter frost, did we see any examples of malady or suffering. Of the latter, some victims appeared in almost every place which we passed, from St. Petersburgh downwards."*

We have inserted this melancholy picture of the condition of the inhabitants of the less wealthy governments, even in the southern part of Russia, where the soil and climate are comparatively favourable, because we believe it to be drawn by one who had excellent opportunities of observation, and on whom the charge of prejudice or exaggeration cannot justly be fastened. It is only at a distance from the influence of towns, that the real condition of a people can be fairly ascertained. Yet even here, destitute as the people are of all the comforts of life, and with few traces of civilisation or improvement, there is no hamlet, however inconsiderable, that is not provided with the universal indulgence of a vapour-bath. "In some conspicuous spot, one might espy, towards evening, the wooden hut pouring forth steam from every chink and cranny, and generally surrounded with *semi-nudes*, with their leafy rods in their hands, joking and sporting with each other unconcerned. The universal prevalence of the practice of bathing is remarkable. Towards the end of the week, the Rus-

* James's Journal, vol. ii. pp. 326—30.

sian peasant complains that his skin begins to itch, and, whether it be summer or winter, his first leisure hour, if he possesses but three copecks, is employed in the bath....The heat of the atmosphere," adds Mr. James, "was in this month (July) very great, the mercury standing at upwards of 80° Fahrenheit in the shade; and this sort, therefore, of vapour-washing, which is so universal in hot countries, seemed nothing more than the natural course of things. But to what can we ascribe its adoption in the northern districts, in Finland, in Ingria, at Archangel, where it is as constantly applied during the eight months of winter, as throughout the short period of their summer? Unable to form a judgement of its medicinal advantages, it remains only to say, that it is not from the physical necessities of a cold climate that it has been put in practice. It is not common in Sweden or Canada, countries nearly parallel in point of latitude, and suffering the rigour of seasons equally severe. But probably, like many other customs of the Russian nation, the use of the bath was borrowed from the habits of their eastern or southern neighbours, and thence has been gradually extended by fashion and imitation over the whole empire."

As our Traveller advanced towards Kiev, he met with numerous caravans of carts, carrying goods to St. Petersburgh and Riga, and pedestrians, mostly of the lower classes, going on a pilgrimage to Kiev. The only place of any consequence he passed through before he reached that city, is Tchernigoff, the capital of the government of that name,—a handsome, neatly built town on the banks of the Desna. This river, a branch of the Dnieper, passes, in its whole course, through fruitful and well-wooded districts: it

is navigable for 800 versts, as far as Bransk, whence provisions, timber, and other goods are conveyed to Cherson, and sometimes, by means of the Dnieper, to Smolensko.* Tchernigoff is an instance of the manner in which many of the chief towns and even districts of this empire, have at one time been separated from the crown, and subsequently reunited by treaty or force of arms. Having been granted as an *appanage* to one of the family of the czars, it afterwards passed into the hands of the kings of Poland, and was given up by them, together with Smolensko and Kiev, in 1686, as the price of the accession of Russia to an alliance between Poland and Venice against the Turks. Soon after quitting this town, Mr. James came in sight of Kiev. "The Dnieper," he says, "rolled at our feet, a smooth, majestic river, of more than a verst in breadth: on its banks was a caravan of Tâtars and Russians, listening to the simple notes of the *balalaika*; above our heads rose a long range of hills, encircled with a rich foliage of trees, and crowned with the gilt domes of the sacred city."

KIEV.†

HAVING crossed the Dnieper, and toiled up a steep ascent by a road covered, as usual, with planks, our

* A plan has been in contemplation to connect the Desna and the Oka, which would be of very great advantage to the inland navigation of Russia, as it would much facilitate the conveyance of the productions of the Ukraine and Little Russia, as well as of those of the Levant, through the Black Sea.

† The name of this town has been very variously written, Kiew, Kiev, Kief, Kioff, Kiow, Kiowia, Kiovia, &c. Kiev or Kief gives the real pronunciation, though written Kiew by the Russians. It is supposed to be derived from *Kiovi* or *Kii*, a Sarmatian word signifying heights or mountains; and its inhabitants, a Sarmatian tribe, were denominated *Kivi*, or mountaineers.

Traveller had a full view of the city, with its cupolas blazing with gold; while below it, appeared an unvaried plain of interminable extent, covered with a thick forest, through which the Dnieper, "now dwindled to a streamlet, was seen winding its silvery path into the horizon." It seemed a land untouched by man, and as wild as the most uncivilised tracts of America.

The situation of Kiev is very commanding: it rises to a great height on the crest of some hills forming a kind of natural amphitheatre, overhanging the Dnieper, the banks of which are either broken with well-wooded ravines, or gently descend to the water's edge. Houses, monasteries, and churches crown the sides as well as the summits of these hills, and present, Dr. Lyall says, a *tout-ensemble* quite enchanting. The view of it from the river is particularly picturesque. The interior of Kiev, however, as is very often the case in Russia, by no means corresponds to this exterior splendour.

This city, the ancient capital of the great dukes of Russia, and "the cradle of the Russian sovereignty," stands on the west bank of the Dnieper, in lat. 50° 27′ N., and long. 30° 27′ E., at the distance of 878 versts from Moscow, and, by the direct road, 1,286 from St. Petersburgh. Its catacombs, castle, and arsenal, the antiquity of many of its buildings, especially of one of its churches, and the figure it makes in the history of Russia, render it a place not uninteresting, though, as a residence, it has been justly styled "detestable." Its very early history is involved in some obscurity; it is known, however, to have been a place of consequence so early as the beginning of the fifth century, when the Slavi, driven from their settlements on the Danube by the Romans, established themselves here and at Novogorod. The Slavonic prince of the

latter city treacherously seized Kiev, during an expedition against Constantinople, and immediately made it the seat of the united sovereignty. In 1037, it was declared the capital of all Russia; an honour which it continued to enjoy, till, in consequence of its having been frequently taken and plundered by the Lithuanians and Tâtars, the seat of power was transferred to Vladimir. After this, it became the prey of the strongest, being alternately subject to the Poles, the Lithuanians, and the Tâtars. In 1686, it was finally ceded by the Poles to Russia, and was erected into a distinct government on the new division of the empire in 1710. In 1782, it was made one of the three governments into which Little Russia was divided; but, at the last division, in 1796, it was made the chief town of a new government bearing its name, consisting chiefly of territories on the right bank of the Dnieper, which had then recently been acquired from Poland.

Kiev is composed of three distinct quarters; the Petchersk fortress, with its suburb; the old town, with its Polish fortifications; and the Podolsk. The fortress was built by Peter the Great: it is surrounded with ditches and high ramparts of earth. The arsenal within it, founded by Catherine II., is the finest edifice in the city. The interior of the under story is particularly worthy of the traveller's attention: the ceiling is very lofty, and the whole of the immense room is occupied with cannons, mortars, ammunition-waggons, and all sorts of stores and implements of war, in the best possible order. When Dr. Lyall visited it, there were also 44,000 stand of arms in the upper story: the whole arsenal is capable of containing 80,000, or even 100,000. Within the fortress, there is also an institution for the male orphans of soldiers;

they are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, and geometry, upon the Lancasterian plan. Adjoining the fortress is the Petcherskoi monastery, with the cathedral of the Assumption, founded in 1073, but which has frequently been repaired and altered. It has seven golden domes, and in many respects resembles the cathedral of Moscow. The dome of the belfry, which rises above the hill to the height of about 300 feet, and above the Dnieper to that of 586, is reckoned by the Russians a *chef-d'œuvre* of architecture. Its under story is in rustic, the second is adorned with 32 Doric columns, the third with 16 of the Ionic order, and the fourth with 23 Corinthian pilasters, arranged in threes. It was built by an Italian. Behind the monastery are the two sacred caverns or catacombs, stretching towards the Dnieper, with a deep ravine between them. They were originally inhabited by monks in the eleventh century, before the monastery was built, and afterwards were set apart to receive the relics of saints, martyrs, and holy men. Devotees here spend hours, days, and weeks; and to visit them is the grand object of the numerous pilgrims who come to Kiev from all parts of Russia. Mr. James thus describes his visit to them: "We descended a long staircase *en ramp*, to the mouth of the sacred catacomb, being formed into a regular procession, and each bare-headed, carrying a lighted taper in his hand. It is a labyrinth, mined in the solid rock, consisting of walks, chambers, branches, &c., ascending and descending for the distance of several hundred yards; the passage about six feet wide, and coved at the top; its sides neatly plastered, and stained with a black wash; the flooring laid with iron plates about a foot square. The remains of seventy-three saints, or primitive Christians of Russia, the objects of veneration, are deposited in

semicircular niches, that occur at intervals on the passage. The bodies are wrapped round and bandaged with swathings of silk, after the fashion of mummies, though no part, not even the face, is left visible. What was within, I know not; but they were scattered over with pieces of money, the offerings of devotees. The coffins, which are always left open, are of an oblong square figure, decreasing in breadth from the head downwards, adorned in the interior with flowers of gold painted on a red ground. These personages were the same who once found an asylum here, at a day when the unsettled nature of the times rendered them liable to perpetual persecutions abroad." Dr. Lyall states, that the names of the saints are placed over the cells or on the tombs: their number is about 150. Among them, besides archbishops, monks, princes, &c., there are bakers of bread for consecration, wafer-makers, image-painters, grave-diggers, and the twelve masons who built the cathedral. Here also are shewn "a great number of *odoriferous heads*, and one of the children murdered by Herod's orders." In the cathedral is preserved the head of the Great Duke Vladimir. The whole of this subterranean necropolis is formed with more care and regularity than the catacombs of Rome and Naples. "On our return to the realms of day," continues Mr. James, "we heard the chant of mass sounding from the church of the monastery, and thither we instantly repaired. The people whom we found assembled, completely filled every part of the area: it was a herd of pilgrims, habited in all the various costumes of the southern provinces of the empire, some of them being said to have made a journey on foot of 1,500 versts, in order to discharge their vows at Kiev; and indeed, their lank, worn looks and tattered garments

seemed, in many instances, to bespeak the toilsomeness of their undertaking. While their devotions detain them here, they are for the most part obliged to lie out at night, being destitute of money to pay for lodging; and by day, only once, perhaps, receive refreshment, at the gratuitous repast which is provided, at the cost of the emperor, in the refectory of the monastery. But the enthusiasm, devotion, and superstition of a Russian, are easily able to surmount all these difficulties; and there is scarcely a person in the south, either of those who have sins to expiate, or of those whose quiet and holy life requires some notable act to grace its monotonous career, but imposes on himself, at one time or other, the task of performing this burdensome act of over-zealous piety."

Old Kiev is situated between the division of the Fortress and the *Podolsk*; its fortifications are in ruins, and there is scarcely one regular street in it. Its monasteries and churches, however, are celebrated for their antiquity and peculiar architecture. The church of St. Sophie is the oldest in the Russian dominions. It was the work of architects who came from Constantinople, and is built in some measure after the model of the famous church of the same name in that city; its interior, especially, bears many traces of Byzantine architecture. From the quarter of the Fortress to the Podolsk, the road leads down a very steep hill. The streets in the Podolsk are not regular; the houses are mean; the wooden bank of the river adjoining it is in a decayed state; and altogether, this division of Kiev has a desolate appearance; it is crowded, however, with churches and monasteries. It is partly inundated during the spring floods of the Dnieper. The streets in each division are very irregular, mostly unpaved, or only boarded over. The

resident population is estimated at about 20,000; among whom are a great many Jews, some Malo-Russians, and a few Poles; but the majority are Russians. The trade of Kiev is extremely dull, consisting chiefly in the exportation of corn and wood to the south, for which salt or money is received in exchange. Within these few years, greater activity in commercial pursuits has prevailed, since the fair which used to be held at Dubno, has been transferred hither. To this fair, the Polish nobles, and all the people of the adjacent country, resort for the sake of transacting business, and making leases or transfers of land. The merchants also attend with stores of provisions for sale, which are purchased for the households of the nobles, in the wholesale way. Sometimes the concourse at this fair is immense. Mr. James found the necessaries of life much cheaper here, than in any other town in Russia which fell within his route; though the inhabitants complained, that a great augmentation of prices in general had taken place during the visit of the Empress Catherine, on her southern tour, and that they had not fallen to their former value.

FROM KIEV TO THE AUSTRIAN FRONTIER.

At Kiev, the routes of Dr. Lyall and Mr. James again separate. We shall at present accompany the latter to the frontiers of Austrian Poland. On entering Russian Poland, every house seemed to be inhabited by Jews, who here carry on almost every profession and trade: millers, farmers, white-smiths, saddlers, drivers, ostlers, &c., all were Jews. Their relative numbers, however, were not so great as, from their constantly appearing in the streets, they seemed

to be. Out of a population of 6,000, which Zytomir, the first town in Volhynia which Mr. James entered, contains, not more than one-third are Jews; though, judging from the crowds of them every where seen in the streets, he would have imagined the reverse to be the fact. He was much struck with the beauty of this race of people: their countenance does not, he says, at all resemble what is called in England, a Jewish turn of features. "The women are remarkably handsome; their persons large and full-made; their faces very regularly formed; with black eyes and hair, set off with delicate complexions of white and red. The men are tall and straight, but rather of a spare habit; their features small, and very much fashioned like that meek and placid countenance which the Italian painters have invariably given to the picture of our Saviour. This peculiar style of visage was, however, gradually lost as we approached nearer to the confines of Germany; nor did it any where seem so prevalent as in this province (Volhynia)."

Travellers in Russia during the summer months, are much annoyed by musquitoes; and from the time that Mr. James left Moscow, till he passed the Dnieper at Kiev, he had been tormented by them. Immediately after passing that river, they became less numerous and troublesome, and after a few stages, disappeared altogether. It is difficult to account for their disappearance, as the district he was traversing, was in general an uncleared tract of bog and wood, exhibiting no trace of man, except here and there, under a tree, the mark of some preceding traveller's fire. Caravanseras, attached to the miserable huts of the post-masters, and capable of receiving all the carts and horses of a large company, supplied them with fresh horses. Some malicious wit once remarked,

that he was certain he had reached a civilised district, because he saw a gallows: Mr. James makes a similar remark. "Among the first symptoms of the works of man, we observed the crosses that are erected at the junction of the bye-roads, and in other spots, said to be where murders had been committed; they were adorned, in the true popish taste, with the pincers, nails, and sponge, and rude inscription and ladder; tokens that were to be recognised as significant of a change at least in the forms of the superstitions of the people whom we were about to visit."

The wild and uncultivated district of Volhynia possesses a capital quite in character with it, called Novogorod; it consists of a castle and a few scattered cottages. The contrast, in several respects, between the Polish and the Russian peasants, was striking, and much in favour of the former. The women, whom Mr. James had an opportunity of seeing in their best attire at a marriage feast, were dressed in white chemises, with petticoats of blue, edged with borders of red, the favourite national colours of Poland; their hair was adorned with large wreaths of flowers, and a great number of ribbons, blue and red, hung down their backs. The dress of the men was not quite so gay, but their clean-shaved chins pointed them out as a distinct people from the Russians. Other circumstances, also, bore the marks of a new country. In Russia, the clappers of six or eight bells are tied to one rope, and thus they are all rung together; whereas Mr. James was agreeably surprised to hear at Novogorod the chime of bells; and the sound of the organ brought his feelings and associations still nearer and closer to his native country. "It may seem extraordinary," he says, "to indulge such sentiments when on the point of taking leave of any country; but there

is something so revolting in the manners and conduct of the lower classes of the Russians, with whom a traveller is chiefly concerned on the road, that I confess, the feeling one experiences towards them is something more than that of unmixed pity; and I believe, there are few persons who do not congratulate themselves on passing the Russian frontier."

Not far distant from the capital of Volhynia, is held the great annual fair of Berditchef, which is attended by all the Polish seigneurs for many miles round: they bring their families, and remain encamped for upwards of three weeks. The chief sale is for horses; and some years, upwards of 40,000 are sold. At Ostrog, "a Jewish town," the next stage towards the Austrian frontier, the face of the country presents some appearance of fertility, in a few meadows, and lands cleared from wood and sown with corn; the houses also are more numerous and of a better construction, the inns excellent. Multitudes of Jews here present themselves, offering every thing for money, even the services of their wives and daughters. Soon after, passing through Dubno, which has fallen into decay, in consequence of the removal of its fair to Kiev, Mr. James passed the Russian frontier, and arrived at Brody, the first town in Austrian Poland.

We shall now return to Kiev, and accompany Dr. Lyall in his route by Odessa to Cherson.

FROM KIEV TO CHERSON.

For the first thirty-five versts after leaving Kiev, the soil is of more various quality than is common in this part of Russia, being at first sandy, then clayey, which is succeeded by a deep and rich loam. Clay is very rare in any part of Russia: indeed, it is a kind of

soil much more abundant in Britain than in any district of the Continent. As our Traveller advanced towards the South, the roads became better, and pastures, corn-fields, woods, and small lakes presented themselves in succession. Dr. Lyall was much struck with a proof of the imperfection of Russian husbandry in this part of his route: six oxen and three persons are employed for each plough. Jews form a large proportion of the population, and, as usual, monopolise all trades and handicrafts; but every where, except at Kiev, they exhibited a picture of great degradation and wretchedness. Complaints were every where heard of their impostures and monopolies; and to this cause Dr. Lyall is disposed to attribute the imperial ukase, dated August 29, 1824, by which, "all Jews, who are not physicians or established merchants, are ordered to renounce, by the year 1825, the petty commerce they have hitherto carried on, and to return to the occupation of their ancestors; that is to say, to tillage. For this purpose, the Government will assign them lands in the temperate climate of European Russia, provide them with every thing necessary to commence their agricultural pursuits, and found them new settlements; besides, it will exempt them from taxes for some years, if they conform to the supreme will of his majesty. On the other hand, they have no alternative except to quit Russia and Poland." A singular practice prevails among the Jews of the South of Russia. Strings attached to poles and stretched across the street, are put up, as a sign that free intercourse may be carried on among them; but when they are removed, on the Sabbath for instance, no Jew, in case he quits his house, can carry any thing loose about his person, not even his snuff-

box or handkerchief. The authority for this strange custom is said to be derived from the Talmud.

The "paltry and miserable town" of Human, situated on a river of the same name, 302 versts from Kiev, was formerly a place of some importance in the wars with the Tâtars. Near it is the celebrated residence of the Countess Pototskoi, called Sophievka,—a woody dell, in the midst of an almost unbounded flat country, laid out, at an enormous expense, in gardens, with terraces, cascades, temples, and statues. Dr. Lyall was disappointed at the sight of this Slavonic paradise, but owns, that, nevertheless, Sophievka is "a charming spot." The next place of any interest is Vosnezensk, which lies on the Bog, and is the chief place of the Cossacks of the Bog. This river, which falls into the estuary of the Dnieper, not far from its mouth, is navigable for large vessels 150 versts up: beyond this, for 300 or 400 versts, it is full of cataracts. The Cossacks of the Bog are a warlike tribe, numbering from 6 to 7,000; they have the same military constitution as the Cossacks of the Don. Their capital is one of the largest of the southern military colonies. Here Dr. Lyall had an opportunity of seeing the immediate change produced by this system of colonisation. "It now contains a number of regular and wide streets; almost all the old buildings have been repaired and whitewashed. A temporary wooden riding-school; a fine, large, new, stone riding-school; a school for the *cantonists*, or young soldiers, conducted upon the Lancasterian system; another for the female children, under the direction of the Countess de Witt, whose husband is occupied in arranging the colony; military stores and magazines; and numerous houses for the officers who reside here;"

were all pointed out to our Traveller's notice, as the result of the conversion of this place into a military colony.*

"From this town to Odessa, a distance of 125 versts, the country possesses little interest, being mostly level, with few villages. The nearer, however, the traveller approaches that place, the more decided and numerous are the marks of cultivation and population. Odessa† is situated between the mouths of the Dniester and the Dnieper, at the south-west corner of the Bay of Adschai, in the Black Sea. It stands on a declivity in the midst of extensive and productive plains; and is in the government of Cherson. The streets are regular and straight, and in general intersect each other at right angles; some are very long, a few are lined with trees, but all are unpaved. In many, the houses are contiguous; in others, intermixed with

* The grand feature of this system of military colonisation, Dr. Lyall describes to be, "the organisation of an immense army from among the crown peasants, who are to be employed in agriculture in time of peace, and to form nearly the whole of the land force of the empire in time of war; in fact, during peace, to have a resident, self-supporting, agricultural army, or one, at least, which will cost the crown little except their arms." In other words, a militia. But, in fact, "the economy of the system," it has been remarked, "amounts only to an odious method of augmenting rents, and of taking them in kind. When employed, these colonists are to be paid like other soldiers; and when dormant, they afford only the same resource for recruiting as the whole Russian empire; with the sole advantage of previous military discipline, which is far more cheaply taught to a landwehr, or a local militia."

† The latitude of this town is variously stated. Dr. Clarke says, that in the best, and almost the only charts of the Black Sea, which are those printed at Paris, it is placed at least 27′ out of its position towards the North. In Norris's "Seaman's Daily Assistant," its latitude is given 46° 28′; but, in the "Connoissance des Tems," its latitude is 46° 29′ 30″; and as this latitude was ascertained by astronomical observations, we may regard it as accurately correct. Its longitude, according to the same authority, is 30° 45′ 22″ East.

gardens; they are in general neatly built of stone, with roofs of wood, or sheets of iron, gaudily painted. The stone of which they are constructed is the same as the rock on which the town is built,—a semi-indurated limestone, exhibiting throughout its entire mass, an assemblage of small cockle-shells, perfect in their form, but crumbling in the hand, and tinged with an oxyd of iron. Odessa contains seven churches, a theatre, an admiralty court, a custom-house, a hospital, several inns, a lyceum, and schools for trade and navigation, and for the instruction of girls. The air is pure and remarkably wholesome; the bay is good and secure; but it labours under the want of a navigable river, and a great scarcity of fresh water. The harbour is capable of containing 300 vessels. The commerce is considerable, with France, Spain, Italy, the Levant, Germany, and England. The chief articles of importation are wines and liqueurs, cotton stuffs, perfumes, shawls, oil, spices, tobacco, cloth, porcelain, and paper. Corn is the principle article of exportation, together with, latterly, butter, caviare, tallow, hog's lard, ironmongery from Tula, hides, furs, &c. About 800 vessels arrive annually; of these, 400 are British. The villages in the neighbourhood produce butter and cheese,—rarities in the south of Russia; potatoes are common; and the melons are remarkably fine, the water-melons being nearly equal in flavour to those of Syria. Fuel is scarce: weeds gathered on the steppes, bundles of weeds, and cow-dung, are used as a substitute. This last they stick upon the sides of their houses; a custom, as Dr. Clarke remarks, practised in the isle of Portland, and throughout the whole county of Cornwall. Odessa is remarkable for the superior flavour of its mutton.

The history of this place is interesting. Soon after

Russian vessels were permitted, by a treaty with the Turks, to navigate the Black Sea, they founded Cherson on the right bank of the Dnieper; but it was soon found, that it would not answer as the commercial port of the Black Sea. The Dnieper, from its cataracts, the shallows below it, and its being frozen or blocked up with ice for half the year, is unfit for communication with the interior, as well as with the Black Sea; the air of Cherson, also, is insalubrious. These circumstances, the extension of the frontiers of Russia from the Bog to the Dniester, and the acquisition, by the partition of Poland in 1793, of the provinces of that kingdom nearest the Black Sea, induced the Empress Catherine to found Odessa in 1796. In 1802, the Black Sea, being freed from the exclusive dominion of the Turks, became a common domain, and the centre of great speculations among the English, the Prussians, the Neapolitans, the Ragusans, the Dutch, and the inhabitants of the Ionian Republic. Odessa was the port to which they all resorted. In 1802, 280 vessels arrived from Constantinople and the Mediterranean; an immense quantity of corn was exported, and it was confidently looked to as capable of affording a supply of this article, in case of a failure of the crop in any part of Europe. At this time, the population was about 7 or 8,000, of whom scarcely a third were females. The Russian Government did all they could to encourage the commerce of Odessa: the most beneficial measure was the appointment, by the Emperor Alexander, of the Duke de Richelieu to be its governor-general. This nobleman began his administration by gaining the confidence of the merchants, and digesting plans as remarkable for their soundness as for the rapidity with which they were carried into full and advantageous execution. From

the year 1803, the date of his appointment, to the year 1810, its progress was rapid and almost entirely unchecked. From 1810 to 1814, its advance was not so rapid; and in the last year, it suffered a great loss by the return of the duke to France. Its population at present is supposed to amount to nearly 40,000. Greeks are the most numerous: they are chiefly retail merchants and workmen. The Russians are principally servants: the most wealthy and powerful citizens are the French, English, and Germans. Jews abound, but are mostly poor. The want of a navigable river, and the dearth of fuel, will always be drawbacks, however, on the prosperity of the town.

From Odessa, Dr. Lyall proceeded by Nicholaef to Cherson. The road to Nicholaef lies through several shallow *limans*, or salt-lakes, and across deep sands: nearer the town, cultivated fields and a few trees were seen. The town of Nicholaef is situated on the south side of the Ingul, near its confluence with the Bog.* As it is without the bar of the Dnieper, it is the station for vessels when built, and here they are laid up to be repaired. It stands in lat. 46° 58′ N., long. 30° 46′ E., about 77 miles from Odessa, 40 from Cherson, 877 from Moscow, and 1,362 from St. Petersburgh. It is of very recent foundation, having been built only in 1791. Its progress was slow, till the admiralty of Cherson was transferred to it. At present, the admiral-in-chief of the Black Sea resides here. The Russian Government have made great efforts to render it a place of importance, by the erection of extensive arsenals and storehouses. When Dr. Lyall visited it, a number of vessels lay in the

* Dr. Clarke says: "The river Bog flows quite round the place, in a broad and ample channel." This appears to be an error. We have followed Dr. Lyall and Vsevolojsky's Dictionary.

harbour of the Ingul: at the docks he saw a frigate of 64 guns, and another of 44 guns was on the stocks. The timber for ship-building is principally brought by the Dnieper to Cherson, and thence to Nicholaef. All the ships built here, are sent empty down the river to Glubokoye, a distance of several versts, where they take in their cannon, tackle, &c., and thence proceed to the Black Sea by means of the floating machines called camels. Both Dr. Clarke and Dr. Lyall represent this place as superior to most towns in the empire in many very important respects. Its elevated situation, its fine, healthy climate, the magnificence of its river, the regularity that has been observed in laying out the streets, and their extraordinary breadth, the cheapness of provisions and of all articles of necessity, except fire-wood, and the attractions of excellent society, place it, according to these authors, very high in the small catalogue of Russian towns.

The country between this place and Cherson, a distance of forty miles, is principally steppe land, with here and there elevations and numerous *tumuli*. About four or five versts from the barrier of Cherson, and not far from the great road, is the monument of Howard. Some interesting details of the last illness and death of that admirable man, are given by Drs. Clarke and Lyall, from information received on the spot. He had with some reluctance visited a sick lady about twenty-four miles from Cherson, and, after prescribing for her, had desired her friends to send for him again in case of her getting better; adding, that if, as he feared, she should become worse, it would be to no purpose. She became apparently better, on which they sent a letter to him, but, through some mistake, it was eight days in getting to his hands. Upon re-

ceiving it, he determined to proceed, as he was, without loss of time. The weather (it was in November 1789) was tempestuous and cold, and the rain fell in torrents. Dr. Lyall states, on the authority of the nephew of the lady, that Mr. Howard set off on horseback "in a light, old-fashioned dress, in silk stockings, and without a great coat," and that he had a fall by the way. On his arrival, he found the lady dying, which is said to have affected him much; and this circumstance, added to extreme fatigue and the inclemency of the weather, most probably brought on his fatal illness. He attributed it, however, himself, to his having put his hand beneath the bed-clothes, to feel his patient's pulse, when she was in a state of perspiration. On his return to Cherson, he was so unwell, that he was not able to pay his daily visit to his friend Admiral Priestman. This alarmed the admiral, who went to see him, and found him weak and ill. Mr. Howard told him, that his end was fast approaching. His friend endeavoured to rally his spirits, and to turn the conversation; but Mr. Howard replied: "Priestman, you style this a very dull conversation, and endeavour to divert my mind from dwelling upon death; but I entertain very different sentiments. Death has no terrors for me: it is an event I always look to with cheerfulness, if not with pleasure, and be sure the subject is more grateful to me than any other. I am well aware I have but a short time to live: my mode of life has rendered it impossible that I should recover from this fever. If I had lived as you do, eating heartily of animal food, and drinking wine, I might, perhaps, by altering my diet, be able to subdue it; but how can such an invalid as I am lower his diet? I have been accustomed for years to exist upon vegetables and water, a little

bread, and a little tea. I have no method of lowering my nourishment, and consequently I must die. It is such jolly fellows as you, Priestman, who get over these fevers." He then spoke of his funeral, pointed out the place where he wished to be buried, and added: —"Let me beg of you, as you value your old friend, not to suffer any pomp to be used at my funeral; nor any monument or monumental inscription whatsoever to mark where I am laid; but lay me quietly in the earth, place a sun-dial over my grave, and let me be forgotten." He was very anxious that his friend should immediately secure the spot where he wished his grave to be; and when the admiral returned with the information that he had succeeded, his countenance brightened. He then made his will. Soon afterwards, symptoms of delirium appeared; in the intervals, however, he was able to understand a letter from England, informing him of the probability that his son would recover from the disorder with which he was afflicted. When his servant had read this letter, Mr. Howard turned his head towards him, saying, "Is not this comfort for a dying father?" He was very averse to having a physician, but at length he nodded assent. The physician came and administered a musk draught, a medicine used in Russia at the last extremity. Mr. Howard swallowed a little, but endeavoured to avoid the rest: he was then entirely given over, and shortly afterwards breathed his last. He was buried at the spot he had selected; but, instead of a sun-dial, a brick pyramid, surrounded with stone posts with chains, forms his monument. Another monument has since been erected to his memory near the church of the Assumption, without the barrier of Cherson, consisting of a simple pyramid, with poplars round it, and enclosed by a high circular wall. On

this there is an inscription containing his name, the date of his death, and his age. On the original monument there is no inscription, but only the words, "John Howard," scratched on the plaster.

Cherson (Kherson) stands in lat. 44° 37′ N., long. 31° 26′ E., 913 miles from St. Petersburgh, 1,400 from Moscow, and 57 from the Black Sea. It is built on the right bank of the *liman* of the Dnieper. This immense embouchure varies greatly in breadth at different times: when the shoals with which it abounds are not covered with water, it is not more than one verst broad; but when they are covered with water, its breadth is six versts; and the navigation by the proper channels extends to fifteen. The mouth of the Dnieper is exposed to the influence of the north-east wind: when this blows violently for a length of time, it leaves the river full of shallows, and diminishes the depth of the only channels fit for vessels to about five feet, the entrance being at the same time extremely narrow. From these circumstances it is evident, that Cherson derives little advantage from its situation on the Dneiper; and it is surprising that the objections to it as a commercial and naval station, and for dock yards, were not foreseen. It was built in 1778, and augmented and fortified in 1780. It is divided into four quarters, the fortress, the admiralty, the Greek suburb, and the suburb for sailors; but, though regularly planned, it has nothing striking in its appearance. The natural disadvantages of its situation, and especially the building of Odessa, have occasioned its gradual decline. But, though it is never likely to be a naval or commercial port, such as its founder contemplated, yet, as Dr. Lyall remarks, "it may long remain an emporium for the equipment and armament of the fleet of the Black Sea, and a *depôt*

for the produce of the neighbouring province." The population, in 1822, amounted to about 14,000 souls. The fact that it was the meeting-place of Catherine II. and the Emperor Joseph, the death of Howard within its walls, the adjoining monument erected to his memory, and the sepulchre of Potemkin, give it an interest which attaches to few towns in the Russian empire.

From Cherson, Dr. Lyall proceeded to Berislavl, situated on an elevated and sloping bank of the Dnieper. This town is remarkable only as being one of the passages of that river, by which corn is transported into the Crimea, and salt brought back. There is also another ferry across the Dnieper at Nikopole, 160 versts higher up. The ferry-boats here are numerous and large, and are constantly crossing and re-crossing, crowded with carts or *telegas* filled with corn or salt. Dr. Lyall was two hours in crossing the Dnieper. The route then lies over dreary plains all the way to Perekop, situated on the isthmus of the same name, which forms the principal road between Russia and the Crimea. The distance across the isthmus in the narrowest part, scarcely exceeds five miles. A very inconsiderable rampart extends from the Black Sea to the Sea of Azof. The waters of both these seas annually diminish, so that, as Dr. Clarke remarks, it is natural to conclude, that the shallows on each side of the isthmus have increased in their extent since the time of Strabo. Pliny speaks of the Crimea as having once been an island; and Dr. Clarke says, that it would again become one, if the waters of the Black Sea were to be once more restored only to the level of those strata of marine shells which may be observed in all the district from the mouths of the Dnieper to the Don.

Though the situation of Perekop* is of so much importance, and it is the chief town of a district, it is, in fact, a small village, containing only 38 houses; but, during the summer, it is a scene of great bustle and commerce: 20,000 cart-loads of salt alone, annually leave its gates for the supply of the south of Russia. These carts are drawn sometimes by camels, but generally by white oxen, from two to six in each vehicle. "Their freight is so easily obtained, that they have only to drive the carts axle deep into the shallow water upon the eastern side of the isthmus, and then they may load them as fast as they please, the salt being there like sand. The sight of so many hundred waggons, by fifties at a time, in the water, is very striking; they appear like fleets of small boats floating upon the surface of the waves. The driver of each waggon pays a tax of twelve roubles to the crown. There are various reservoirs of salt in the Crimea; but those of Perekop, used from time immemorial, are the most abundant; and they are considered as inexhaustible. Taurica Chersonesus was an emporium of this commodity in the earliest periods of history. It was then sent, as it is now, by the Black Sea to Constantinople and to the Archipelago; by land to Poland, and over all Russia, to Moscow, to St. Petersburgh, and even to Riga. The oxen, after their long journey, are occasionally sold with the cargoes they have brought; and sometimes they return again the whole of that immense distance with other merchandise. The caravans halt every evening at sun set, when the drivers turn their oxen loose to graze, and lie down themselves in the open air, to pass the night upon the steppe."

* Perekop, Dr. Clarke says, is a Russian word signifying the intrenchment of the isthmus. The Tatar name is *Or-Kapy*, *i. e.* the gate of the fortification. It is the Taphros of the Greeks.

THE CRIMEA.

In describing the Crimea, our principal guides will be Pallas, Dr. Clarke, and Dr. Lyall; it may, however, be acceptable to our readers, if we premise a very short history and general view of this peninsula.

The Peninsula has been known under different appellations. It is the Taurica Chersonesus of ancient geography. By some travellers in the middle ages, it is called the Island of Caffa. In more modern times, it has been known under the name of Crim Tartary, and at present is called the Crimea. It is situated between the parallels of 44° 40′ and 46° 5′ North, and the meridians of 32° 45′ and 36° 39′ East; and is of a lozenge shape, having the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof on every side, except at its northern angle, where it is joined to the Continent by the Isthmus of Perekop. It is supposed to contain about three millions and a half English statute acres, the far greater proportion of which consists of steppes, or desert plains. On its north-east side is the Mud Sea, a shallow gulf of the Sea of Azof, called by the ancients, *putris palus*, or the putrid gulf. This also cuts deep with many bays into the eastern shores of the Crimea; and is itself divided from the Sea of Azof by the Peninsula of Arabat, which projects from the Crimea on the south-east. This peninsula is not more than a mile, or a mile and a half broad, but extends seventy miles to the north. To the south of it is a projection of the Crimea, called the Peninsula of Kertsch, anciently the kingdom of Bosphorus; to the east of it are the Straits of Taman, anciently the Cimmerian Bosphorus, dividing it from the isle of the same name, beyond which is Cuban Tartary. The southern and western

coasts of the Crimea are entirely washed by the Black Sea.

From this outline, it will appear that the Crimea is naturally divided into three parts: Crimea Proper, the Peninsula of Kertsch, and the Isle of Taman. More than three-fourths of Crimea Proper towards the North, consists of steppes, without trees, but affording good pasture, and abounding with salt lakes and marshes. The soil varies more than the soil of steppes generally does, being partly a white, sandy clay, partly a black vegetable loam, mixed, near its southern boundary, with chalk and limestone. It abounds in petrifactions and the remains of marine productions, which has led to the supposition, that it was formerly covered by the Black Sea. The southern portion of the Crimea is mountainous. The principal ridges stretch from east to west; their southern declivities are much steeper than their northern. Some of these hills are said to be 1,200 feet above the level of the Black Sea, and are covered with snow till the end of May: their sides are clothed with excellent timber, fit for ship-building. The soil is calcareous, mixed with clay, and is of great fertility, producing wheat, rye, barley, hemp, tobacco, and grapes, abundantly. Petrifactions are found even on their summits. There is only one river of importance in the Crimea,—the Salghir; but there are many smaller streams, which are rapid and dangerous after heavy rains, although, in the dry season, they are nearly without water. The appearance and soil of the Peninsula of Kertsch are very different from those of Crimea Proper. From west to east, it extends eighty-four miles in length; and its medium breadth, from north to south, is twenty-four miles. The isthmus joining it to the Crimea, is a level plain, ten miles broad. To the east of this, the land

rises into gentle eminences; there are also hills of some elevation in other parts; and the shores both of the Euxine and the Sea of Azof, are high, steep, and difficult of access. Salt-lakes abound between the hills; and the water produced by digging wells on the lower ground is mostly brackish. The rivulets are few, and dry in summer. There is little timber, but abundance of fruit-trees in the gardens and orchards, the soil, except near the salt-lakes and marshes, being fertile. The singular spit of land which separates the Mud Sea from the Sea of Azof, is mostly a plain, affording excellent pasture. Petrified shells, salt-springs, a spring of petroleum, a mineral said to be a native prussiate of iron, and, on the summit of a hill, a marsh containing water, bitter and salt to the taste, and of a disagreeable smell,—are the chief natural curiosities of this strip of land. On the leaves and stems of the vegetables growing round this marsh, is found what is supposed to be sulphuret of soda. The Isle of Taman, which is included in the same government as the Crimea, is forty miles in length from east to west, by twenty-six in breadth from north to south. Its shores are steep, and its surface is in general elevated. The soil of the interior is fertile, though it does not spontaneously produce either trees or shrubs. There are some salt springs, and many springs of fresh water, but no running streams. Mineral oil, or petroleum, abounds in the interior; there is also one mud volcano; and two of the hills at the western extremity are said to be volcanic.

The population of the Crimea, before it came under the power of Russia, consisted of Turks, Greeks, Armenians, and Tâtars. At present, there are no Turks, not many Armenians, and very many of the Tâtars have quitted it, with their families and flocks,

and have taken up their abode on the steppes of the Continent. The Tâtars of the Crimea, according to Pallas, may be divided into three classes. The Nagays are the least mixed of the Mongolian race; they devote their whole attention to agriculture and the rearing of cattle. A second race, resembling the first, but not of such pure Mongolian descent, inhabit the plain from the edge of the hilly country to the Isthmus of Perekop. The third class occupy the southern valleys of the mountains; they have a distinct and peculiar physiognomy, with the beard stronger and hair lighter than the other two; they are stationary, and devote their whole attention to agriculture and the cultivation of hemp and tobacco. We shall have occasion to notice more particularly the manners and customs of these races, in tracing the routes of the Travellers we are following.

The Cimmerians, a tribe of the Thracians, are the most ancient inhabitants of the Taurica Chersonesus of whom history gives us any information. They were driven to the high lands by the Scythians, about 665 years before the Christian era. A hundred years afterwards, the Greeks formed colonies on the southern shores, where they carried on a flourishing commerce; and the eastern peninsula having been subjected by them, was erected into the kingdom of Bosphorus. About 100 years before the birth of Christ, Mithridates reduced this kingdom, as well as the rest of the Chersonesus, under his dominion. On the fall of Mithridates, the Romans took possession of the Crimea; but the kingdom of Bosphorus appears to have still subsisted as a dependent power. The Alani, the Goths, the Huns, and other barbarous tribes, in succession, conquered the Chersonesus; though at times they professed a nominal subjection

to the Eastern Emperors. In 1237, the Crimea became a province of the Western Tâtar empire. It was indebted for its recovery from the impoverished and desolated state to which it had been reduced by this repeated change of masters, to the commercial establishments of the Venetians and Genoese. The latter, by permission of the Tâtars, in the fourteenth century, rebuilt Caffa, the ancient Theodosia, making it the centre of their commerce on the Black Sea. At this period, a lucrative trade was carried on from the Crimea with India and China. The caravans engaged in this trade, either passed from Cathay, or Northern China, across the Amour, and through Central Asia, by the north of the Caspian, to Azof; or across the Caspian to Sevastopol in the Crimea. In 1441, it became, for a very short period, an independent Tâtar monarchy. This was destroyed by the Turks, who, at the same time, expelled the Genoese. It continued under the actual power of the Turks, though nominally under its own khans, till 1774, when the Empress Catherine II. stipulated for its independence. In 1781, a civil war broke out among the Crim Tâtars, in which the Russians interfered; and in 1783, the reigning khan abdicated his throne in favour of Russia. Her sovereignty was confirmed by a treaty with the Sultan, in 1784, since which time it has remained a province of the Russian empire.

Between Perekop and the capital of the Crimea, there are so few villages, that Dr. Lyall was impressed with the belief that this part of the peninsula was in a state of great desolation,—one among many instances of the erroneous conclusions which travellers may often draw from particular facts appearing strongly to warrant their opinions. An excellent statistical map of the Crimea and subsequent infor-

mation convinced him that he had judged by a very fallacious criterion. At the short distance of five or six versts on all sides, there are flourishing Tâtar villages. It must be acknowledged, that the dominion of the Russians has in many respects proved a curse to the Tâtars. Their buildings have been destroyed, their national feelings wantonly outraged, and, by such measures, their former character has been much changed. "The Tâtars of the Crimea of the present generation," says Dr. Lyall, "differ considerably from their ancestors. Forty years of subjection, dependence, and oppression, have operated in diminishing, if not eradicating, all the higher feelings and principles of savage life, without having supplanted them by the benign influence of knowledge, civilisation, and religion. Since the reign of Alexander, it must, at the same time, be candidly admitted, that many measures have been concerted so as to make the burden of despotism less and less sensible to his Crimean subjects, and to elucidate and illuminate their minds."

The present capital of the Crimea is Sympheropol, to which the Tâtars gave the name of *Ak-metchet* (white mosque), from an edifice of that description erected by Ibrahim Bey. The natives still call it by this name, although the Russians have restored its ancient appellation. It is 963 miles from Moscow, and 1,408 from St. Petersburgh: it is finely situated in a valley, watered by the Salghir, at the foot of the Tauridan mountains, and, in summer, has a lively appearance from the numerous gardens, clumps of trees, and extensive fields, which either surround it, or are intermixed with the houses. The old city is built in the manner of all Tâtar towns, with narrow streets crossing one another at irregular angles, unpaved and filthy. At first sight, a stranger imagines

he is wandering among half-ruined walls; all the houses being built within courts, surrounded with walls so high that only the tops of the houses can be seen: and these walls, as well as the houses, are built of irregular masses of limestone. The mortar is principally made of clay, with a trifling intermixture of sand and lime. The out-buildings are of plastered wicker-work; and all the roofs are covered with tiles laid on interwoven ōsiers and a bed of clay. The streets of the new town are wide, and contain all the public buildings; none of which, however, are in the least worthy of notice, except the cathedral, which, taken as a whole, Dr. Lyall pronounces the handsomest ecclesiastical structure he had seen in the empire. Besides four mosques with minarets, there are also an Armenian church, a Roman Catholic church, and a synagogue. The population is about 2,000, consisting principally of Tâtars: Greeks, Moldavians, Armenians, and Jews form the remainder. It was long the residence of the celebrated Pallas, to whom we are indebted for the best account of the Crimea, although his description of the beauty and healthiness of this part of the peninsula has been charged with some degree of exaggeration. The place of the Professor has been supplied, Dr. Lyall says, by one of the first naturalists of the age, Mr. Christian Steven, who, after having travelled in the Caucasus, Georgia, and the Crimea, has been appointed director of the botanic garden at Nikita on the southern coast, where he spends several months in the year. At Sympheropol, Dr. Lyall also met with a polite reception from a very interesting personage, well known to many persons in this country, — the Sultan Katti-Gherry Krim-Gherry, a descendant of the Tâtar khans of the Crimea, born among the mountains of Caucasus. Having become acquainted

with the Scotch missionaries at Karass, this Mohammedan prince was led to embrace the Christian faith; and for some time he resided with Dr. Paterson at St. Petersburgh. From that capital he came to this country, where he prosecuted his studies for some time at the Protestant Dissenting College at Homerton, and subsequently in the University of Edinburgh. Here he became enamoured of a young lady, his present sultana, whom he succeeded in inducing to leave father and mother, kindred and country, to reside with him in the Crimea, to the great displeasure, it is said, of her family. The sultan accompanied the Rev. Lewis Way in his journey through Russia and the Crimea in 1817–18. Dr. Lyall represents him as anxious to be instrumental in the conversion of the Crim Tâtars to the Christian religion. He was at that time arranging a small school in commencement of his plans. "Being now a Russian subject, and having necessarily relinquished the property in the Caucasus to which he was heir, the Emperor Alexander has lately bestowed upon him a pension of 6,000 rubles, which, with the addition of the small income of the sultana, enables him to live comfortably. At Sympheropol, his house is arranged in the English style. Almost every portable article within it, was of British manufacture, and British customs and manners alone prevailed. His wife seemed a very modest, amiable person, and is highly prized by her husband, by whom she had one daughter at the time of our visit, and, I believe, has now two or three more children." The sultan obligingly accompanied Dr. Lyall in his tour round the southern coast.

While Dr. Lyall was strolling one evening in the Tâtar division of the town, "the sonorous, but harsh sound of music in a Tâtar coffee-house, induced him

to ascend a narrow staircase and enter it, when quite a novel scene presented itself. A single large room was divided by low, wooden partitions, surmounted by rails as ornaments, into four small compartments, the floors of which were elevated a few inches above the level of the passage. In each of these apartments was a low table, on which stood an immense salver, with live charcoal, surrounded by groupes of Tâtars and Greeks, in their native costumes, who were sitting cross-legged upon the floor, drinking coffee and smoking pipes, with their usual gravity and taciturnity, apparently as little affected by the thundering of the musicians, as if they had been in a remote desert. They all wore loose red and yellow boots, in the Eastern style; and had left their slippers at the entrance, which they use for the same purpose as ladies wear pattens in Great Britain. All of them wore small caps, except the *hadjis*, or those who had made a pilgrimage to Mecca or Medina, whose heads were surmounted with high white turbans, as a badge of honour. Two violins, held like the violoncello, and a tambarine regaled us, during our stay, with most inharmonious music. Although both the Tâtars and the Greeks shewed great apathy, yet they must have some taste for the amusement, since the master of the house finds it advantageous to employ the musicians very frequently."

At the distance of thirty versts from Sympheropol, proceeding southward, is Bakhtchiserai (garden palace), the ancient Tâtar capital of the Crimea, romantically situated in a narrow dale between high mountains, "presenting an appearance somewhat like that of Matlock." The *Tchuruk-su* (stinking stream) traverses the town. The houses rise in terraces along the sides of the hills, interspersed with gardens, vine-

yards, and clumps of trees, chiefly Lombardy poplars, watered by numerous fountains and canals. The numerous minarets, the ancient palace, with the adjoining mausoleum, and a profusion of white chimneys rising amidst the richest foliage, produce a peculiarly beautiful and picturesque effect.* The view breaks all at once upon the traveller; and although the town does not contain one magnificent object, the *tout-ensemble* is extremely imposing. The interior of the place, however, by no means corresponds to its external beauty; the streets are narrow, crooked, and dirty, the houses small, the shops in general mean. The old Tâtar town suffered much from the wanton barbarity of the Russians, after the Crimea came into their possession; and their love of destruction seems to have been especially directed against the palace of the khans, which, in the time of its ancient splendour, was the most perfect and most remarkable monument of oriental magnificence in the Crimea. A French author thus epigrammatically, but justly, describes its general arrangement at this period:—"Mohamed, the dead, and the horses were on one side; the sovereign, the wives, and the falcons on the other." It is said to be the intention of the Russian Government to restore it to its former state. Bakhtchiserai contains a population amounting to 10,212; of whom upwards of 7,000 are Mohammedans, and upwards of 1,100 Jews. The Tâtars and Jews have their respective magistrates. There are no Russian burgesses. Its trade is very inconsiderable. Bakhtchiserai contained in 1822, according to an official document cited by Dr. Lyall, a population of 10,212 souls, of whom 8,200

* The town is stated to contain three churches, two Greek and one Armenian; thirty-two mosques, one synagogue, and seventy-four fountains.

were Mohammedans. There are not above five or six families of Russians, Catherine II. having given up this place entirely to the Tâtars; there are about eight Armenian families; the few remaining Christians are chiefly Greeks. In the above estimate, however, are included 1,120 Karaite Jews, who rank as freemen of the town, but inhabit the neighbouring Jewish colony of *Tchufout Kala* (Jew's castle), distant about four versts. Their village, situated on the summit of some steep cliffs, has a singular and picturesque appearance. These Jews, having lived from time immemorial under the dominion of the Tâtars, have in a great measure adopted their customs, manners, language, and dress. Their character, according to Dr. Clarke, is "directly opposite to that generally attributed to their brethren in other countries, being altogether without reproach. Their honesty is proverbial in the Crimea; and the word of a Karaïte is considered as equal to a bond. Almost all of them are engaged in trade or manufactures. They observe their fasts with the most scrupulous rigour, abstaining even from snuff and from smoking for twenty-four hours together. In the very earliest periods of the Jewish history, this sect separated from the main stem; such, at least, is their own account. They observe extraordinary care in the education of their children, who are publicly instructed in the synagogues; and in this respect, the Tâtars are not deficient. We rarely entered any Tâtar village in the daytime, without seeing children assembled in some public place, receiving their instruction from persons appointed to superintend the care of their education; reciting with audible voices passages from the Koran, or busied in copying manuscript lessons placed before them."

Adjoining the village of these Jews is their ceme-

tery, than which nothing, we are told, can be imagined more calculated to inspire holy meditation. This "field of the dead" is "a beautiful grove, filling a chasm of the mountains, which is rendered gloomy by the shade of lofty trees and overhanging rocks. A winding path conducts through this solemn scene. Several tombs of white marble present a fine contrast to the deep green of the foliage; and female figures in white veils, are constantly seen offering their pious lamentations over the graves." This little valley is so highly prized by the Jews, that, according to Pallas, whenever the ancient khans wished to extort from them a present, or to raise a contribution, it was sufficient to threaten them with the destruction of these sacred trees, under the pretence of wanting fuel or timber.

Six versts from Bakhtchiserai, the road to Sevastopol crosses the Katcha, a small stream flowing through a beautiful valley. Soon afterwards, the traveller enters on an extensive vale, through which the road winds along the course of the Belbek or Kabarta, till within three or four versts of the bay of Sevastopol. A singular scene here presents itself. "On the right," says Dr. Lyall, "we beheld white and brown calcareous hills, sterile as imagination can conceive, whose base was diversified by broken rocks and patches of naked clayey soil, peeping through parched grass, and enlivened only by a few stunted shrubs and blooming wild flowers. On the left stretched a plain of most luxuriant pasture, bounded by gentle hills and lofty mountains, covered with woods and plantations, gardens, nurseries, and vineyards. The road, cut through the base of the hills, forms, as it were, a line of demarcation between the most luxuriant vegetation and almost total sterility." A fine bay of the Black Sea

opens to the view on quitting this valley; and on reaching the summit of a hill, the town and part of Sevastopol are seen below. This town, the Tâtar name of which is Aktiar, (more properly *Ak-Yar*, so called from its white rocks,) stands on the large and magnificent bay of the same name. Its harbour is one of the finest in Europe, the largest vessels being able to lie within a cable's length of the shore: it is divided into three coves, affording shelter in every wind, and favourable situations for repairing or building. No vessels, however, are built here, as the timber must all be floated down the Bog or the Dnieper, the Crimea not affording materials fit for building, though there is always enough for repairing: the plan of the harbour somewhat resembles that of Malta. Sevastopol, seen from a distance, makes a very lively appearance, with its white walls and gaudy domes rising amid green trees, and the noble sheet of water, covered by numerous vessels, in the fore-ground. A public garden, laid out in terraces on an elevation in the middle of the town, has a pleasing effect. The houses are extremely good, all in the modern Italian style of architecture; and the streets are wide and regular, intersecting each other at right angles, but unpaved. The public buildings consist of two churches, a third in the docks, the admiralty, the arsenal, the hospital, the magazines, the barracks of the garrison, and marine barracks. It is a rising place. The population was estimated, in 1822, at 22,000, which Dr. Lyall considers as an exaggeration. It is, in fact, constantly fluctuating, but the fixed residents are believed not to exceed 3,000. The town is said to contain, however, 1,750 houses.

Aktiar is described by Dr. Clarke as the very centre of the most interesting antiquities of the Crimea; but when Dr. Lyall visited it, he was told by a Russian

of high rank, "that almost every thing worthy of observation was now annihilated; the devastation having been nearly completed within the last few years." The Emperor Alexander, indeed, on his visit to the peninsula in 1818, had given strict orders for the preservation of all the remnants of antiquity then visible; but these orders unfortunately came too late. "The country included within the isthmus formed by the principal harbour of Aktiar or Inkerman," says Dr. Clarke, "that is to say, by the *Ctenus* of Strabo and the port of Balaclava, or *Portus Symbolorum*, is the Heracleotic Chersonesus* so accurately described by that author as a portion of the *Peninsula Major*, or Taurica Chersonesus. Within this small district stood the cities of Old and New Chersonesus; Eupatorium; the temples of Diana, and the promontory Parthenium, celebrated in the story of Iphigenia; the famous Chersonesan mole, with numerous ramparts, tombs, canals, and other works, the memory of which historians have preserved, but the last traces of whose magnificence the Russians daily labour to annihilate." The ruins and caverns of In-Kerman (the town of caverns), at the extremity of the principal harbour, and about three versts from Aktiar, are particularly deserving of the attention of every traveller who visits this part of the Crimea. Dr. Clarke has given a detailed description of them in his best manner. He left Aktiar in a shallop with twelve oars, accompanied by the commodore and the metropolitan. "Before we reached Inkerman, some very remarkable excavations appeared in the rocks by the side of the bay, visible at a considerable distance. Upon examination,

* So called, because it was peopled by colonists from the city of Heracleum, in Asia Minor.

they proved to be chambers, with arched windows, cut in the solid stone with marvellous art and labour. The bishop described them as retreats of Christians in the earliest ages of the church. But to give an idea of what we saw at Inkerman, would baffle every power of description. The rocks all around the extremity of the harbour, are hewn into chapels, monasteries, cells, sepulchres, and a variety of works, which, by their multitude and intricacy, astonish and confound the beholder. A river flows here into the bay, after watering perhaps the most beautiful valley in Europe. At the mouth of this river, the most remarkable antiquities are situate, the excavations appearing on both sides. The first caverns visible to persons approaching from Aktiar, are upon the south side: these have been converted into magazines for gunpowder. It was with great difficulty we could prevail upon the sentinels to suffer us to enter the caves where the ammunition is kept. They seem to have constituted an entire subterraneous monastery: the rock has been so wonderfully perforated, that it now exhibits a church, with several chambers, and long passages leading off in various directions. From these caverns, a fine prospect of the valley of Inkerman appears through the wide, open arches, together with heaps of ruins upon the opposite side of the river. The principal cave seems to have been the church. We found several stone coffins cut in the rock; these had all been opened. We noticed some Greek inscriptions above them, but the characters were too faint, and too imperfectly engraven, to be legible. The difficulty of copying or deciphering them was increased by the obscurity of the caverns. It was now evening; and night coming on, the full moon rose in great splendour over the long

valley of Inkerman, illuminating a landscape which, as it was seen through the arches of these gloomy chambers, is not to be described. Upon the opposite side of the river, excavations were still more frequent, and somewhat further from the bay. Crossing an ancient bridge, whose fair-proportioned arch and massive superstructure indicated the masonry of some remote age, we found the caverns to be so numerous, that they occupied one entire side of a considerable mountain. Upon its summit were the towers and battlements of a very large fortress, supposed to have belonged to the Genoese, but perhaps originally part of the fortifications erected by Diophantus, one of the generals of Mithridates. From the appearances of staircases, leading also to the very caverns before mentioned, it is evident that a fortress must have stood there ever since the excavations were first made, whatsoever be the date of their origin. Several chapels, together with the remains of some sepulchres, apparently constructed for the bodies of distinguished persons, are among these chambers, which are now tenanted by the Tâtars and their goats. The stone coffins serve as drinking-troughs for the cattle: the altars, once smoking with incense, are now filthy receptacles for dung and mud. Pallas, who had paid considerable attention to the subject, believed that all these remains, whether of buildings or excavated chambers, originated in a settlement of Arians, who, when Christianity met with general persecution, fled to these rocks, and fortified themselves against the barbarous inhabitants of the peninsula. Similar works are found in other parts of the Crimea, particularly at Shûlû and Mankoupi; also in Italy and other parts of Europe: and they have generally been attributed

to the labours of those Christians who fled from persecution."*

The air of the valley of Inkerman is very unhealthy during the autumn and summer months: indeed, the same may be said, in some degree, of nearly the whole peninsula. Tertian fevers are the most prevalent complaints. The exhalations of extensive marshes, that are often covered by the sea, and that surround the mouth of a stream at the end of the Bay of Aktiar, are supposed by Pallas to be the cause of the unwholesomeness of the air. The soil near the town is full of saltpetre; and a manufactory of it, on a very simple and easy process, has lately been established. The Crimea is subject to the plague of locusts. When Dr. Lyall was here, he saw about 200 Tâtars, armed with branches of trees tied together, and clubs, occupied in destroying them, by beating them against the ground. They seldom rose above two or three feet from the ground, but sprang up in myriads as he rode among them. There are two species known here, — the common migratory locust, and the herald, or messenger locust, so named because it precedes the common locust; it is nearly twice its size. The migratory locust, when fluttering in the sun's rays, exhibits a fiery appearance, from the redness of its legs and inferior wings; it possesses wonderful strength in its limbs, so that, when pressed down by the hand on a table, they have almost power to raise the fingers. Locusts destitute of wings are also sometimes found in the Crimea. A small kind of caterpillar seems peculiar to the peninsula, which is very destructive to the vine, committing its depredations in April and May: when full-grown, it is half an inch in length, and the thickness of a straw; it has sixteen legs;

* Clarke, vol. ii. p. 203.

Pallas regards it as a nondescript. There are three species of venomous insects, particularly annoying to travellers, in the Crimea. One seems to resemble the large black tarantula of the south of Italy, but is of a tremendous size. Dr. Clarke caught one with a pair of tongs, which, when extended in a natural posture upon a table, embraced with its claws a circumference whose diameter equalled nearly three inches. The second species, also a spider, is smaller, but more formidable. Pallas assured Dr. Clarke, that its bite had proved fatal in cases where he had himself attended the patient; it is, however, rare. The third kind of venomous insect is the centipede, or *scolopendra morsitans*, the bite of which is terrible; it is very common in dry timber, beneath stones, and in fissures of the ground. In the mountainous districts of the Crimea, scorpions are found.

Dr. Clarke appears to have satisfactorily ascertained the site of the ancient town of Eupatorium. The plain lying between it and Chersonesus is covered with ruined buildings. The latter, however, is by far the most interesting object, especially when we reflect on its former grandeur. So long as the Tâtars possessed the Crimea, its magnificent ruins were regarded with surprise and reverence; but the Russians had no such feelings; and Pallas significantly remarks, that the construction of Sevastopol finished the destruction of this ancient city. Some traces of the city, however, still remained when Dr. Lyall visited it in May 1822. Immensely thick walls, at one place penetrated by a low arch, rose to the height of six or eight feet above the level of the ground, held together by a "marly cement," similar to that employed at the castle of Inkerman; great quantities of stone, also, lay scattered on the plain.

The Heracleotic Chersonesus is supposed to have been bounded by a line running from Sevastopol or Inkerman, to Balaclava. The port of Balaclava (*Bella Clava*, the beautiful port) is represented by Dr. Clarke as one of the most remarkable in the Crimea: it is completely sheltered by high hills, and its entrance is so narrow, that the waters within it are as smooth as those of a lake, even when the sea is raging tremendously at its entrance. It is about a mile in length, about 200 fathoms in breadth, and in depth, even near the shore, from fifteen to twenty fathoms. Its harbour is most accurately described by Strabo. The town itself possesses nothing remarkable, except its fortress, which is supposed to have been built by the Greeks, and repaired by the Genoese. Its population consists of about 1,200 Greeks, from the Morea; a set of pirates to whom Catherine II. assigned the place for the services they rendered to Russia in her war with the Turks.

From Balaclava, Dr. Lyall proceeded by Muchulatka, to the celebrated valley of Baidar. The road leads through a pleasant dell, bounded by rifted rocks, the sides and summits of which are covered with the oak, the ash, the cherry-tree, the mountain-ash, and the hazel. Respecting the much-extolled beauty of this fine valley, the accounts of travellers singularly differ. It has been described by Lady Craven and Mrs. Guthrie, under the title of the Tauric Arcadia and the Crimean Tempe. Dr. Clarke, however, says, that it will not admit of a comparison with many of the beautiful scenes in Switzerland, or even Norway and Sweden; and he seems disposed to give the preference to the vale of Balaclava. Pallas considers even the vales of Caucasus as far surpassing this celebrated spot. It extends about ten miles from south-west to

north-east; its breadth varying from five to six. On the south, it is bounded by woody mountains, which run along the sea-coast; on the east, by a rapid declivity; on the north, by a ridge of rocks, which divide it from another valley, and by wooded hills; and on the west, by the rocks of Varnutka. Meadows, woods, corn-fields, gardens, vineyards, enclosed and intersected by green hedges and plantations, neat villages, and numerous clear rivulets, fill the eye in every direction. "So rich is the foliage, that ranges of Tâtar huts along the sides of the hills, and scattered throughout the plain, are nearly concealed from the view, or only shew their rustic tops amidst masses of verdure. The fine oaks and enormous walnut-trees are peculiarly remarkable. Pallas alludes to a tree of the latter species, which annually produced from 80 to 100,000 nuts."

From Balaclava all along to Caffa, or Theodosia, the Tauridan mountains are described by Dr. Lyall as forming an "immense terrace, or line of bold and lofty promontory, broken into mountains, sometimes presenting their perpendicular or overhanging fronts, sometimes exhibiting their fantastic profiles, separated into cliffs and peaks, and sometimes descending by gentle declivities to the valleys, or stretching to numerous beautiful bays of the sea. The distance between the mountains and the sea may vary from two and three to six and eight miles; and the intervening space is occupied by a succession of fine valleys, from Laspi to near Sudak. The imposing boundary is here and there naked, but is generally covered with woods or scattered trees; and many transparent streams issue from between the rocks, which at times swell into cascades, and roll towards the ocean, watering the low lands in their progress." Dr. Clarke, when speaking of this part of the Crimea, breaks out

into the following panegyric: "If there exist upon earth a terrestrial paradise, it is to be found in the district intervening between Kûtchûckoy (a village upon the most southern point of the Crimea) and Sudak. Protected by encircling Alps from every cold and blighting wind, and only open to those breezes which are wafted from the south, the inhabitants enjoy every advantage of climate and of situation. Continual streams of crystal water pour down from the mountains upon their gardens, where every species of fruit known in the rest of Europe, and many that are not, attain the highest perfection. Neither unwholesome exhalations, nor chilling winds, nor venomous insects, nor poisonous reptiles, nor hostile neighbours, infest their blissful territory. The life of its inhabitants resembles that of the golden age. The soil, like a hot-bed, rapidly puts forth such a variety of spontaneous produce, that labour becomes merely an amusing exercise. Peace and plenty crown their board; while the repose they so much admire, is interrupted only by harmless thunder, reverberating in the rocks above them, or by the murmur of the waves upon the beach below." The learned Traveller visited the Heracleotic Peninsula twice. In his second excursion, he was accompanied by Pallas, with whom he had an opportunity of exploring some of the wildest retreats in this part of the Crimea, where the Genoese*

* In the south of the Crimea, the Genoese language is not yet quite extinct. During their long residence in this country, they not only introduced many of their own terms into the native language of the peninsula, but incorporated many Tatar and Greek words with the Italian. Of this, Pallas and Dr. Clarke give several specimens; but, in some of these, it is difficult to determine to which language the origin of the word ought to be referred, or whether it may not, in both languages, be traced to a common origin.

have erected fortresses upon the most precipitous and inaccessible places. One of the most remarkable of these is the citadel of Mankoup, which is of extraordinary magnitude, and, according to Dr. Clarke, may be truly described as being in the clouds. It was originally built by the Greeks, possessed afterwards by the Genoese, and then taken possession of by a colony of Jews. It covers the summit of a semicircular, insulated mountain, the ascent to which has once been paved the whole way, but is now extremely difficult. On every side appear caverns and gloomy passages, hewn in the solid rock. Upon the most elevated part is a beautiful plain, covered with a fine turf, from which all the other mountains, hills, woods, and villages may be discerned. "While with dismay and caution," says Dr. Clarke, "we crept upon our hands and knees, to look over the brink of these fearful heights, a half-clad Tâtar, wild as the winds of the north, mounted upon a colt equally unsubdued, without saddle or bridle, except the twisted stem of a wild vine, galloped to the very edge of the precipice, and there, as his horse stood prancing upon the borders of eternity, amused himself in pointing out to us the different places in the vast district which the eye commanded." A few steps lead from the north-eastern point of the mountain down to a cavern, called by the Tâtars, "The Cape of the Winds." Dr. Clarke supposes it to have been a place of military observation; it is hewn out of the solid stone, and is open on four sides. Through the arched apertures, "a most extensive view, over distant mountains and rolling clouds, forms a sublime spectacle." In the opinion of our Traveller, there is nothing, in any part of Europe, which can surpass the tremendous grandeur of the scenery.

From this mountain, Dr. Clarke went, by way of Shûlû, a village belonging to Professor Pallas, to Balaclava. In his road, he passed several pits from which the Tâtars dig that kind of fuller's clay called *Keff-kil* (literally, foam-earth), and by the Germans, *meerschaum*. "This substance, before the capture of the Crimea, was a considerable article of commerce with Constantinople, where it is used in the public baths to cleanse the hair of the women. It is often sold to German merchants, for the manufacture of those beautiful tobacco pipes that are called *ecume de mer* by the French." Since the interruption of commerce between the Crimea and Turkey, the clay requisite in this manufacture has been dug up near Eski Shekhr, in Anatolia.

In Crimea Proper, the vale of Sudak, and the town of Caffa, are the only other objects which our limits will permit us to notice. This beautiful vale, which extends from the mountains to the sea-shore, is upwards of three versts in length, by from two to three in breadth. A rivulet flows through it into the sea. Vineyards and groves of trees, intermixed with fine poplars, abound on all sides. The cottages of the proprietors, one or two stories high, tiled and white-washed after the European manner, add greatly to the beauty of the scene. The vineyards, which belong to the crown, are of considerable extent: some of the vines are native, but most of them exotic. The kinds of wine now made here, chiefly from foreign vines, are called, red and white wine of Zante, red and white wine of Corfu, red French wine, white Hungarian wine, and red claret; besides different kinds of red and white Crimean wine. The whole quantity made in 1821, amounted to 60,000 *vedros*, each of fifteen small-sized bottles. About four versts from

the vineyards is the castle of Sudak, supposed to have been built by the Genoese: when entire, it must have been a place of great strength. A few Tâtar houses near it, and others scattered over the plain, form the modern village of Sudak. In ancient times, this place had attained such celebrity for its extensive commerce, that all the Greek possessions in the Crimea were at one period denominated *Sugdiana*.

On the post road from the Tâtar capital of the Crimea to Caffa and Kertch, is Karassu-bazar (black water market), the great mart of the peninsula, especially for fruit and wine, where also is held a great annual fair for horses and cattle. The town contains a Russian church, a Greek church, a fine Roman Catholic church, recently erected, an Armenian church, about twenty mosques, and a synagogue. Its inhabitants, estimated by Dr. Lyall at nearly 5,000, are Tâtars, Armenians, Greeks, Italians, Jews, and Russians. It contains several tanneries, candle and soap manufactories, and tile-works. It has also long been famed for its manufacture of red and yellow morocco, which is soft and pliant like silk, and at the same time thick and strong.

Caffa, which has generally, but erroneously, been supposed to be the Theodosia of the ancients,* is a sea-port town, standing near a beautiful bay, protected

* Dr. Clarke has cited several authorities, which seem to prove, that Caffa is the ancient Χαῦον, or *Chavum*, "one of the three fortresses built by Scilurus and his sons against the generals of Mithridates;" and which rose out of the ruins of Theodosia, from which it was thirty miles distant. Arrian calls Theodosia, the deserted city. Its real site, the learned Traveller supposed to be Starai Crim (Eski Krim, Old Crimea), where are found *tumuli* and ruins of decided antiquity, some of which still retain marks of great magnificence. But this place, Pallas thinks, was the ancient *Cimmerium*.

by a promontory from almost every wind, except those from the north and south-west. Its latitude is 45° 6′ 30″ North; its longitude, 35° 12′ 45″ East. At the period of its greatest prosperity, under the Genoese, it was styled Krim Stamboul, or the Constantinople of the Crimea.* It now occupies only a small level space between the bay and an amphitheatrical range of hills, containing but few streets, and scarcely any of them are regular; but the former splendour of this deserted city is still manifest in the numerous subterraneous chambers and innumerable ruins. When Dr. Clarke was here, the Russian soldiers were permitted to overthrow the beautiful mosques, or to convert them into magazines, to pull down the minarets, tear up the public fountains, and destroy all the public aqueducts, for the sake of a small quantity of lead which they were thereby enabled to obtain. Some of the fountains were of great antiquity, and had been beautifully decorated with marble reservoirs, exhibiting bas-reliefs and inscriptions. Almost every street was once supplied and adorned with them; but they were nearly all demolished when Dr. Clarke arrived. The sculptured marbles of its ancient Greek inhabitants had shared the same fate. The population of Caffa has of late been on the increase, and is now supposed to be between 3 and 4,000 souls, chiefly foreigners, as the Tâtars are not permitted to dwell in any maritime towns. The trade of the place also is reviving, though still inconsiderable, owing to its

* Even at this day, Dr. Lyall says, the Tatars sometimes call it Kutchuk Stambul, Little Constantinople. In the days of its prosperity, it is said to have contained 36,000 houses within its walls, and, including the suburbs, not fewer than 44,000. Previously to the conquest of the Crimea, it is stated to have contained 16,000 houses. In 1800, fifty families formed the whole population of this once magnificent city.

having two formidable rivals in Odessa and Toganrog. The Russian Government, Dr. Lyall remarks, is endeavouring to re-establish the prosperity of the Crimea, which its armies have desolated, "by instituting foreign as well as Russian colonies; by building barracks, and other crown edifices; by organising tribunals and a central seat of justice; by restoring ancient names; by forming a fleet; and by building and renovating towns, as Sevastopole, Sympheropole, Kaffa, and Kertch. But the population is gone; and the most useful and industrious people, the Greeks and the Armenians, have nearly all left the peninsula. Industry and commerce are no more, though the Crimea is surrounded with ports on the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof. Sevastopole may continue the great naval station of the south of Russia; Kaffa and Kertch may become fine small towns of crown edifices; and Sympheropole may boast of its tribunals and its being the seat of a government administration; but the prospect of the Crimea ever regaining its importance under the Russians, is very small."

Between Sympheropol and the vale of Alushta, rises the *Tchadir-dagh*, the Trapezus of Strabo, the highest mountain in the peninsula. Its perpendicular height does not exceed 1,300 feet; but it rises so rapidly from the coast, that its apparent elevation is much greater. Almost the whole of the Crimea may be seen from its summit in clear weather. It was ascended by Mr. Cripps, the companion of Dr. Clarke. On the south, the mountains were seen skirting the coast from Caffa to Balaclava; westward, the chain seemed to terminate at Bakhtchiserai; northward of this line, the whole Crimea and, beyond the isthmus, the Ukraine, forms one vast campaign, consisting of a calcareous deposite, containing the remains of marine

animals. All the higher parts of the Tchadir-dagh exhibit a mass of very compact grey limestone. Its lower district is covered with thick groves. "With what different views," remarks a female traveller (Mrs. Holdernesse), "has this singularly shaped mountain been viewed by different nations, and how plainly have they betokened their several habits in the names which tney have chosen to affix to it. The Greeks called it Table Mountain; the Tâtars, Tent Mountain; the Cossacks, Saddle Mountain; but an Englishman at Sevastopol, told a friend of mine, that he considered it as resembling nothing so much as a sirloin of beef!"

Before we take leave of Crimea Proper, we shall avail ourselves of the notices contained in the works of Drs. Clarke and Lyall, relative to the domestic habits of the native Tâtar population. They are divided into three classes: the *moorzas*, or noblemen; the *mullahs*, or priests; and the peasantry. A mullah is at the head of every settlement; and nothing of importance is undertaken without his counsel; his land is ploughed and sown for him; his corn reaped, and carried home; and it is seldom that the proprietor of the soil takes tithe of the priest. The *moorzas* of the Crimea amount to about 250. Their dress resembles that of the Circassians; their manners are elegant, and they ride extremely well. The cottages, even of the poorer sort, are extremely clean. The floor is of earth, kept smooth, firm, and dry, and covered with mats or carpets. The meanest Tâtar has a double dwelling; one for himself and his guests, and one for his women. Sometimes, when a Tâtar has two wives, each of them has a separate chamber. When a stranger arrives, he is conducted to the apartment appropriated for men, and a basin of water and clean napkin are

presented to him, to wash his hands. He has then placed before him, curds, cream, honey in the comb, poached eggs, roasted fowls, fruit, or whatever else the dwelling affords; water is again brought in, after the meal is over, as they eat with the fingers, like other Orientals. In the houses of the rich, a long pipe is then presented, the tube of cherry-tree wood, tipped with ivory or amber. After this, carpets and cushions are laid for the guests, that they may repose. Sour milk, mixed with water, is a favourite beverage; and they consume a great quantity of honey, which is of a very superior quality. Their mode of keeping and taking bees is very rude and simple, but effectual. "They form cylinders, about six inches in diameter, from the trunks of young trees, scooping out almost all the wood from the bark; then, closing the extremities of these cylinders with mortar or with mud, they place them horizontally piled upon one another in their gardens for hives." When they wish to open these cylinders for honey, the bees are detached merely by their being held over a piece of burning paper, without any aid of sulphur. To every cottage is attached a garden, in which the walnut, the mulberry, the vine, the fig, the olive, the pomegranate, the peach, and the apricot abound. In the cultivation of these gardens, they find their chief amusement. Both young and old shave their heads. In summer, they wear a turban; in winter, a kind of helmet of wool; beneath both, at all times, even in the house, is worn a skull-cap. In summer, their legs and feet are naked; in winter, bandaged like the Russians. Their shirts, wide at the sleeves, hang over their fingers' ends; whenever, therefore, they are at work, or at their meals, they are obliged to put back the sleeve, leaving the arm bare. They wear a jacket of

silk or cotton, with a small pocket, in which are kept the steel and flint for kindling their pipes. Their trowsers are large and loose, bound tight below the knee, but falling in thick folds upon the calf of the leg. Some of their customs display a taste for finery. Their pillows are covered with coloured linen; and the napkins for their ablutions are embroidered and fringed. The stool which answers the purpose of a table for supporting a tray during their meals, is often ornamented with carved work, or inlaid with mother-of-pearl. They take great delight in the open air: the men, in the summer months, make little use of the dwelling, sleeping at night beneath the portico, or under a tree. In the principal chamber is a platform, raised about a foot from the floor, and occupying entirely one side of the apartment, on which are ranged their household chests, *dii domestici*, carpets, mats, cushions, and clothes. Their fondness for ablutions seems to arise not merely from a principle of religion, but from a feeling similar to that which makes them delight in being exposed to the air. If any one of them, or of their guests, chances to fall asleep, although but for a few minutes, during the day, water is brought to wash him as soon as he awakes. In every house is to be found one or more copies of the Koran, written in very beautiful characters; these the children are taught, at an early age, not only to read, but to copy. The principal possessions of the Tâtars consist in cattle; herds of thousands are seen in the steppes, and these are often the property of a single person. Dr. Clarke noticed among them many hundred camels; they are employed to draw the waggons in which the Tâtars convey their families. The Tauridan camel has a double hump, being of the Bactrian species. The highest points of

excellence in the Tâtar character, are their sobriety and chastity, by both of which they are universally distinguished. The Tâtar law, in cases of infidelity, sentences the offender to be placed in a grave dug for the purpose, when, the whole neighbourhood being assembled for many versts round, each person present flings a stone, and the delinquent is thus at once stoned to death and buried. The Crim Tâtars, however, now under the Russian Government, and subject to Russian laws, are no longer able to exercise their own customs; and this among the rest has fallen into disuse. Of their industry, a pretty correct idea may be formed from their practice of digging in a sitting posture. It is very usual to see them hewing wood with pipes in their mouths, and performing this double operation, even in moderate weather, with the additional incumbrance of a heavy pelisse.

A few miserable houses, a small church, and a jetty of piles, point out to the traveller Kertsch, the ancient Panticapæum,* a place of great importance above 2,000 years ago, under the kings of the Bosphorus. At present, its population does not exceed 3 or 400; but the Government intend to rebuild the town. It is, however, rich in antiquities. According to Dr. Clarke, there is perhaps no part of the Crimea where a traveller will find so many. "The peasants gladly exchange for a few copecs, the ancient coins which they have discovered in the soil. The walls of the town are full of broken, and some entire marbles with bas-reliefs and inscriptions, neglected and ruined." There are also a fortress and cathedral, built by the Genoese, now nearly in ruins. The

* It is from Panticapæum that the *imaginary* Anacharsis is said to have embarked for Greece.

inhabitants have a tradition, that Mithridates was buried near their town, which is in direct contradiction to Appian's statement, that he was buried by Pompey at Sinope, in the cemetery of his ancestors; but the mound which they shew as his tomb, (called by the Tâtars Attyn Obo,) is so remarkable for its size and height, that Dr. Clarke says, it is scarcely possible to believe it to have been the result of human labour. The tumulus stands on the most elevated spot in this part of the Crimea, and is visible for many miles round. A range of similar *tumuli* continues for some versts along the lofty ridge. One of these, which has been lately opened, exhibited an arched entrance and regular apartments, in which were found several coins and medals. The name of Mithridates is associated with various other objects in this neighbourhood.

FROM TAMAN TO THE CAUCASIAN LINE.

PALLAS gives a formidable description of the navigation of the Bosphorus from Kertch or Yenikale, to the isle of Taman; but, except in a storm, Dr. Lyall says, with the Greeks and their excellent boats, there is not the least danger. The isle of Taman was formerly included in Asia; but modern geographers make the river Terek the boundary line. The capital, which now bears the name of the island, was the ancient Phanagoria. The ruins of the ancient city still extended, at the time of Dr. Clarke's visit, over all the suburbs; but vast masses of marble, with inscriptions and bas-reliefs, were barbarously used in the construction of the fortress founded by Suwarrow. This occupies an immense space, surrounded with a ditch and a low rampart with many cannon, but could not withstand a well-directed attack for a single

day. The town of Taman at present contains only 47 houses; its stationary population does not exceed 150 males.

One of the most remarkable antiquities of the Isle of Taman, is a naumachia, 1,000 paces in diameter, and surrounded with ruins and foundations. The whole of its area is paved with broad flat stones. The conduits for conveying water into it, when a naval combat was to take place, still remain. Not far from it are the ruins of a Grecian temple. Twenty-seven miles from the town of Taman, is a mud volcano. On the 27th of February, 1794, an explosion took place, which was followed by a column of fire rising perpendicularly to the height of 50 fathoms, and 30 in circumference: this was visible for about twenty minutes. When it disappeared, it was ascertained that the hill had been rent. Great quantities of mud were thrown into the air: at first it flowed rapidly, then slower, on all sides of the hill. When Pallas visited it, there appeared to be 100,000 cubic fathoms of mire, the whole perfectly uniform, resembling a bluish grey, fat clay: there were some few small stones among it. When Dr. Clarke visited the hill, there was nothing remarkable to be seen, except some springs of nauseous black water within the cavities from which the fire and mud had proceeded. In the neighbourhood of Bughas there is one of the petroleum springs so common in this isle; but it yields but a small quantity. Near that village, a small semicircular bay forms part of the *liman* or estuary of the Kuban. This river, the Hispanis of the Greeks, is one of the largest of the Caucasus. It has its source in the Elborus, and forms the boundary between the Russian empire and the Circassian territory. After a long course, it gives off a branch near Kapil, called the

Tchernoi-Protok (black stream), which falls into the Sea of Azof, while the Kuban at length discharges itself into the Black Sea. A third branch of the same river forms the island Astchenief, which is larger than Taman, but full of sand and marshes. "It was originally a peninsula, but, a short time before the commencement of the Christian era, Pharnaces, King of the Bosphorus, transformed it into an island, by piercing the banks of the Kuban, and turning the waters of this third branch into the Sea of Azof."

Although Bughas is a small village, yet, as it is near the frontiers of Circassia, and the narrowest part of the straits is only about half a mile in width, it is a place of great importance. The Russian Government, accordingly, always maintain a considerable force here, and have besides adopted the wise policy of granting Taman to the Tchernomorskoi Cossacks, or Cossacks of the Black Sea. Their territory comprises upwards of 1,000 square miles, stretching, on the south, from the mouth of the Laba to the embouchure of the Kuban; on the north and east, to the government of Ecaterinoslaf and of the Don Cossacks; and on the west, to the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, and the Sea of Azof. It forms part of the government of the Caucasus, with the exception of Taman, which is in the government of the Crimea. Dr. Clarke thinks, that the Cossacks of the Euxine do not resemble the Cossacks of the Don, either in habits, disposition, or any circumstances of external deportment. Dr. Lyall, on the contrary, could not discover any marked differences between them. They have their own *attaman* and particular administration, but their country is under the inspection of a Russian governor. They are descended from the Cossacks of the Ukraine, and were long the bulwark of the Russian

territories against the Tâtars of the Crimea. As a reward for their great services in the war with Turkey in 1787, the empress granted them the country they now possess, which had then lately been conquered from the Kuban Tâtars. In 1792, about 15,000 males took up their abode on the Kuban, formed their capital and several villages, and were charged with the defence of the line of the Kuban along their own territory. They live chiefly by feeding cattle, fishing, and collecting salt, part of which they exchange with the Circassians. One branch of the military duty of these Cossacks, is, to keep watch upon the *vishka*, or observatories. The construction of these is very simple. A board or floor about four or five feet square, with a low rail round it, is raised in the air to the height of thirty or forty feet, and fastened to four posts or trees, one at each corner. There is frequently no ladder, but only cross bars between the trees on one side, by which the sentinels ascend and descend. These rude watch-towers are found at each of the stations, as well as at every piquet. An immense faggot is prepared, covered with hay, to keep it dry in bad weather, which is kindled the moment an enemy is seen. "It must be a real penance," remarks Dr. Lyall, "to remain four hours in the air in cold and bad weather; but the passive obedience of the Cossacks astonished us. Our road lay close by the *vishkas*, and we often passed them without exciting a look or a motion from the sentinels, who stood like statues, with their backs towards us, and their faces towards Circassia, as if a horde of mountain depredators had been advancing."

The capital of these Cossacks is called Ecaterinodar, or the Gift of Catherine, founded by that Empress in 1792. It is a mean and small place, with a population

of about 3,000. When Dr. Lyall was there, he received a visit from a Circassian prince, with his two sons, his priest, two of his nobles, and about a dozen of his suite, all in uniform and well armed. "The prince (named Pshi Mahmet Kadjemko) was a tall, well-proportioned man, of about forty years of age. In his physiognomy, there was no expression of talents, but much of good humour: his complacent manners struck us forcibly. His cap was cupola-formed, made of leather, and bordered with black sheep-skin. His upper garment, made like the coats of the Cossack officers, was dark-coloured and striped; and above it was a coat of chain armour. This was covered with a sort of white linen tunic. The arms were defended by steel armour, silvered and gilt, and otherwise ornamented at the wrists; and below it was a sort of sleeve, which reached the middle of the hand. His blue pantaloons were embroidered with silver, and bound at the knees with red leather garters; and his boots, formed of red and yellow leather, were extremely long, sharp-pointed, and drawn close to the leg and foot by laces. In his right hand, he held a Circassian whip, which, instead of having a lash, terminated in a heart-shaped thong, red on one side and yellow on the other. Such an instrument is admirably calculated for making a noise against a horse's sides. His bow and its case, his quiver full of arrows, and his sabre, we were allowed to examine; but his pistols were in the holsters of his saddle on the other side of the Kuban. The sabre was of Damascus workmanship and very beautiful; but its handle, formed of ivory, was so beset with long and sharp projections, like teeth, that we had to put on gloves before grasping it. The prince's sons were plainly dressed in the Circassian style. The *mohla* (*mullah*) wore a white turban, a wide,

flowing, scarlet robe, and yellow boots, and was also armed with a sabre. The suite were moderately well dressed, and were all well armed. As is usual, their guns were enclosed in goat-skin cases, with the hair outside. The Circassians who were here for commercial purposes, were very badly clothed, and all of them had a wild and savage aspect.....Having bade us farewell, the prince and his suite betook themselves to their canoes, which they paddled across the river. To our surprise, in a few minutes, the whole of the party, mounted on horseback, issued from an enclosure on the other side of the Kuban. The prince first appeared on a white steed; then the *mohla* upon a dark grey horse; and they were followed by the whole suite. The horses were remarkably fine, and held their heads extremely high. This cavalcade paraded up and down upon the banks of the river: the prince's eldest son galloped backwards and forwards, and all seemed busy with preparations, the meaning of which we did not comprehend. At length, the prince and suite set off at full gallop on the plain by the river side, fired their pistols in succession, exercised with their sabres, and then formed a circle, and having made a short *detour*, they repeated the same manœuvres. After another gallop, the whole party halted instantaneously, came down to the beach, formed a line, and, having called to the interpreter to bid us farewell, they rode slowly off."

In his route from this place to Stavropole, Dr. Lyall travelled for a considerable space along the west bank of the Kuban. On the east was an interminable plain. On both sides of the road numerous *tumuli* occurred, similar to those which are to be found in the steppes beyond Kiev, in the Crimea, and, indeed, throughout the south of Russia, and occasionally near Moscow.

The tumuli on the banks of the Kuban are used by the sentinels as observatories. After leaving this river, the route to Stavropole lies through a country presenting the appearance of greater fertility and cultivation; the villages are more numerous, large flocks and herds are seen, and the scenery is rich and varied. A fine dell, richly clothed with wood and shrubbery, introduced our Traveller into Stavropole. This is the chief town of the district, and contains between 2 and 3,000 inhabitants, Russians and Cossacks. The situation is pleasant and salubrious, on the left bank of the Tashla, and the soil around it is rich, and remarkable for its abundant crops of hay. From this place, our Traveller proceeded to Gheorghievsk, which, in 1802, was made the head town of the government of the Caucasus; but the head quarters at present are at Tiflis. Gheorghievsk is 2,094½ versts from Moscow. It stands on the northern branch of the Podkuma (or Little Kuma), not far from its junction with the Great Kuma. Its population, consisting chiefly of Cossacks of the Volga, intermixed with some Russians and Armenians, amounts to about 2,000 souls; and there is a village of the Cossacks at a short distance, which contains about 1,000. Thirty-five versts from this town is Karass, where a Scotch colony has been established. This village is pleasantly situated on a gentle declivity, about three versts from the foot of Beshtau or the Five Mountains, and at the eastern extremity of a fine forest. It consists of two streets, crossing each other at right angles. Through the principal one flows a rivulet, which is described by the Rev. Mr. Glen, the Scottish missionary, as "more useful than ornamental." The buildings are all of wood, a few old ones excepted, which are of wattles. The gardens, orchards, and cultivated fields relieve

however, the meanness of their appearance, by giving to the place the aspect of cheerful industry. The climate has been represented as not insalubrious; yet, "the *prevailing* disease," Mr. Glen states, "is the ague, which is often very severe in the sultry months of July and August, and the dregs of it often issue in dropsy." Consumption is comparatively little known; but the plague has frequently made its appearance in the neighbourhood, and in the year 1804, committed dreadful ravages. The colony has also been terribly thinned by dysentery; so that, in 1822, when Dr. Lyall visited it, the population of the colony consisted of only three Scotch families and twenty or thirty German families.* The celebrated mountain called the Beshtau, is reckoned 3,000 feet high: it occupied Dr. Lyall two hours to reach the summit. To about half way up, it is adorned with woods; and higher up, the yellow azalea and the purple anemone grow in great beauty and luxuriance. The view which it commands, is extremely grand and extensive. Mount Caucasus, "the cradle of the human race," is seen in all its majesty.

The numerous ranges of Caucasus all branch from one immense root of mountains, that stretch diagonally across from the Euxine to the Caspian Sea. The principal range is that to which the Elborus belongs: this is the loftiest in the Caucasus, and, according to the latest and most accurate measurement, rises 17,785 feet above the level of the sea. The second branch of the Caucasus stretches in a direction nearly parallel with the first range, but at a great distance: rich and extensive valleys lie between them. The third range, in some respects vaster, and

* The Germans, with the exception of a few families, have since been ordered to leave the colony, and settle elsewhere.

perhaps more interesting than the other two, stretches along the basin of the Euphrates to the south-west, till it terminates at the point where Mount Ararat towers above every other surrounding elevation. Here it makes an abrupt angle, and diverging due south, shoots out into all those lateral branches which are spread over Asia Minor and Persia.

About forty versts from Gheorghievsk, are the celebrated warm sulphureous springs of Konstantinogorsk, "the Aix-la-Chapelle of Russia." They have their source in the hill called Mestchuca, a part of the Beshtau. Their temperature varies from 106° to 112° of Fahrenheit. They are much frequented by the Russians, even from distant parts of the empire. A few versts from this place at the foot of Beshtau, is a village of Friendly Circassians.* Dr. Lyall gives the following account of the visit which he paid to this village: "It was enclosed by a paling of basket-work, which, after alighting, we entered by a wicket. A number of women, miserably dressed, made their escape, but the children, almost in a state of nudity, remained for a few minutes to gaze at us. One black-eyed girl, of a very dark complexion, with a few tattered clothes on her, and with a naked child in her arms, reminded us of the savages of America and India. The *azdeen*, or noble, who was well dressed and very clean, conducted us past a number of wicker-work, clay-plastered houses, one of which had been blown down the preceding night; an occurrence which is very common, and which is greatly facilitated by

* "A number of Circassian families who dwell on the north side of the Caucasian line of defence, are called Friendly Circassians: though not actually subjects of Russia, they dare not pass the line without permission of the Russian Government."—LYALL, vol. i. p. 450.

the lightness of the materials of which they consist, and by each standing separate from the others. We were shewn into a small room, with a fire-place on one side, and a very low sofa with cushions on the other. The walls were hung, not with tapestry, but with woven straw, and covered with fire-arms, swords, and poniards. The noble wished to kill a sheep for our entertainment, but, as we refused to await its preparation, a small, low, round table, without table-cloth, knives, forks, or plates, was covered with millet boiled in milk, like pieces of pudding. In the centre was placed a wooden dish, containing pieces of new cheese, like curd, which had been toasted with butter and honey. At another table, his children and some other girls partook of the same fare, which they helped themselves to with their hands. They were all dressed in gaudy colours, and walked on high pattens. They were very fine girls, and most of them had beautiful features."

From Gheorghievsk, a rapid drive of 115 versts over level and excellent roads, brought our Traveller to Mozdok, situated upon the right bank of the Terek. This river, which divides European from Asiatic Russia, rises in the Caucasus, flowing first to the north, then north-west, and, about thirty versts from Mozdok, it turns to the east: as it approaches the Caspian, it divides into several streams, which re-unite before it falls into that sea. Mozdok is one of the largest towns in the south of Russia, and contains a population of about 5,000, chiefly Armenians, Georgians, and Circassians. The inhabitants are employed chiefly in the cultivation of the vine, the rearing of silk-worms, and in preparing a kind of spirit from grapes. There are also some morocco manufactories, and some trade is carried on with the mountaineers.

The houses are mean and gloomy, but they derive a cheerful aspect from the gardens with which, in the Asiatic taste, they are surrounded.

FROM MOZDOK TO TIFLIS.

In describing the route from this place across the Caucasus to Tiflis, we shall avail ourselves of the Travels of Sir Robert Ker Porter in Georgia and Persia, in the years 1817 and 1820; Klaproth's Travels in Mount Caucasus and Georgia; and Letters from the Caucasus and Georgia; in addition to the work of Dr. Lyall.

The first important place in this route is Vladi-Kavkaz (Wlady Caucasus), one of the strongest military posts which the Russians possess along the foot of the Caucasus. It is the key to the celebrated defile of the Terek, (the *Pylæ Sarmaticæ*, *Porta Iberica*, or *Porta Caucasia* of ancient geography,) one of the passes through which the Medes, Sarmatians, and other oriental tribes issued into the plains of northern Europe.* The Russians keep here a strong garrison. About twenty versts from this place, begins the first defile of this formidable pass: it is about four versts in length, and presents a wonderful combination of beautiful and sublime scenery. After passing through a second defile less striking than the first, the traveller arrives at the defile of Derial, where "the chasm rises from the river's brink to upwards of 1,000 feet; its sides broken into clefts and projections, dark and

* The other passage is that of Derbent, the *Pylæ Albaniæ* or *Via Caspia* of the ancients. The first syllable in this word, as well as in Derial, the modern name of the Caucasian Gate, is said to signify gate or door.

frowning, so high, so close, so overhanging, that even at mid-day, the whole is covered with a shadow bordering on twilight." Near Derial, where the Russians have a small fortress, the Terek is crossed by a bridge. The highest point of this alpine pass is called the Mountain of the Cross, on which is a pedestal surmounted by a cross, bearing an inscription commemorating the completion by the Russians of the road through the *Porta Caucasia* in 1809. From this point, the route is easy, and for the most part through a beautiful country. Dr. Lyall was particularly struck with the valley of the Aragua, the Araxes of the ancients. "It is equal in length to that of Baidar in the Crimea, but far surpases it in sublimity, if not in beauty." Along the banks of this river flourish lofty, wide-spreading beech-trees, hawthorns, honeysuckles, guelder-roses, and barberries, besides a variety of wild plants which grow in profusion among the woods. As the traveller approaches Passananoor, a palisadoed fortress, the valley becomes narrower. At Ananoor, the next post, all travellers who enter Georgia by this route, are required to perform quarantine. It is described as a detestable place, dirty and wretched in the extreme. Hither, however, as to a strong-hold, the females of the reigning family were formerly sent, whenever Tiflis was threatened with an attack from Persia or Turkey. The country in this part of Georgia, the ancient Iberia, presents the appearance of a rich soil, well cultivated with wheat, barley, and millet, and is enlivened by numerous villages. It forms the province of Kartelania. The same appearance of fertility continues as far as Msket, the ancient capital of Georgia, now a wretched village, described by Dr. Lyall in the following terms. "We entered the small village of Msket, now inhabited by Geor-

gians and Armenians, part of which we absolutely rode over; and, but for smoked holes serving as chimneys, in the flat earth-covered roofs of the houses, we should scarcely have distinguished them from the roads and lanes that wind among them. In many places, they are half under ground, and some of them are altogether subterranean. They are built in the sides of declivities, in other places, like the huts of the Crimean Tâtars; but they are not enlivened by the luxuriant foliage which gives a cheerful aspect to the latter. Indeed, they impressed us with the idea of poverty and wretchedness, and are by no means in harmony with the rich scenery of the valley in which they lie, or the mountains by which it is surrounded." Msket is situated on an angle formed by the junction of the Koor (Cyrus) and the Aragua, which, after passing by Tiflis, fall into the Caspian Sea. There still exist some striking remains of its ancient grandeur; in particular, the ruined palace of the czars of Georgia, some churches, and a castle.

Having now fairly passed the Caucasus, Dr. Lyall remarks, that the dangers and difficulties attending this much-dreaded route, are by no means so formidable as they have been represented by Sir R. K. Porter and some other travellers. Colonel Johnson, who travelled over-land from India to England, in 1817, has given, he says, a very correct description of the route. "The roads in general are good, and practicable even for wheel-carriages throughout. There is only one range of mountains to traverse, and the passage is by no means so arduous as that of almost all the *ghauts* in India, the declivities not being nearly so steep." The most formidable danger, inasmuch as it can neither be foreseen nor provided against, arises from the avalanches, and the immense masses of rocks

which sometimes detach themselves from the mountains, filling up the road, and even changing the course of the torrents. Two or three weeks after Dr. Lyall passed the defile of Derial, a projecting crag fell with a tremendous crash, and dammed up the Terek. To this "drawback" on the pleasure of the journey, must be added, however, the chance of being waylaid and made prisoner by the native banditti. "This horrid method of extorting money has subsisted among this people for upwards of forty years, and scarcely three months pass in which some passenger of note is not waylaid and captured."

The route from Msket to Tiflis leads for some time along the banks of the Koor, and then opens into the plain, at the extremity of which that city stands. Tiflis, when Chardin visited it 150 years ago, was a town of considerable size; but in 1795, it was destroyed by Mohammed Aga, since which, scarcely a third of it has been rebuilt. It is situated between the right bank of the Koor and a high mountain, in a narrow valley, in latitude 41° 43′ N. and longitude 44° 56′ E.; 2,627 versts (1,751 miles) from St. Petersburgh, and 1,900 versts (1,267 miles) from Moscow. Its population, consisting of Georgians, Armenians, Mingrelians, Persians, and Tâtars, is estimated at 30,000. It is surrounded with a wall, and divided into three parts,—the ancient town, the fortress, and the suburbs. Its general appearance is by no means imposing; and its interior is gloomy and dirty. "A miserable, gloomy town," are the words of Dr. Lyall, "by the side of a muddy river, surrounded by black, sterile hills, and parched corn-fields, in sultry weather, and enlivened only by a few exotic green trees, was not likely to produce any but melancholy impressions and the desire of a short residence. The climate,

though often fine, is unhealthy, and the heat so insupportable, that the inhabitants are glad to withdraw themselves to the hills at twenty or thirty versts' distance. During our abode at Tiflis, the temperature never exceeded 91° F.; but the air was indescribably sultry. At times, however, the thermometer, in the shade, rises to 38° R.—118° F. The streets, or rather I should say, the lanes of Tiflis are, for the most part, very narrow and irregular beyond description. Except in those places which have been rebuilt in the European style, there is not one which is straight. The houses, as well as their enclosing walls, are built of broad, flat bricks, often mixed with common stones, or forming alternate layers with them, and bound together with mud mixed with a little lime. Except in the best houses, there are no glazed windows. Common paper and oiled paper are here used as a substitute for glass, which is excessively dear, because there are no glass manufactories in Georgia. The doors opening into the courts, often answer the purpose of windows. The greater part of the town is excessively nasty. The Koor is dirty and often offensive; the public markets are dirty; many of the baths are filthy; and, in fact, in spite of all the Russian improvements, Tiflis seemed one of the meanest and most disagreeable towns I ever saw, but an excessively busy place.

"The *bazars*, though of late much improved, yet have no imposing appearance. The shops are arranged along a covered alley, which is a complete thoroughfare. Some of them are very dark, and all of them gloomy; but they are enlivened by the bustle and noise of crowds of people. The same kind of shops are mostly found together, as grocers, cap-makers, tailors, ironmongers, armourers, silversmiths, &c. In

the fruit-shops we found abundance of apricots, cherries, and mulberries of inferior quality, and different kinds of salad. The season was yet too early for the fine fruit of the climate; and during our stay at Tiflis, we never saw any upon the tables of the nobility. Every kind of merchandise and provisions is to be found here, as well the productions of the country, as of Persia and Russia. We saw carpets, silks, shawls, and other articles in the shops, which are not sold cheap in comparison with the prices in Russia. Immense quantities of Russian and German prints, handkerchiefs, besides cotton cloth, &c. of Russian manufacture, were every where exposed for sale.

"Two large ranges of new shops have been lately erected near General Yermólof's palace. Few of them were occupied, and, indeed, they were not all finished in 1822. We were rather surprised at finding an Englishman, who had just commenced business in one of them. But where can we go without meeting with our countrymen? This part of the town assumes an European aspect, but it still includes hundreds of Asiatic hovels, like terraces, in the sides of the hills, which, being extremely low, flat-roofed, and mean, are in many places scarcely visible until we are close upon them. About the middle of Tiflis, another irregular square is formed by the civil governor's house, the police-office, which was erected in 1820, the *Pravléniyé*, or the administration, and other edifices which belong to the crown. The part of the town which is far the best, is near General Yermolof's house; a structure which, though inferior to many private edifices in St. Petersburgh and Moscow, both in size and in style, yet, is thought extraordinary at Tiflis. Adjoining to it is the arsenal, and opposite it the *corps de garde*. On one side is the public garden,

which is of considerable size, and pretty well laid out. It contains a grotto, tea-rooms, and shaded walks and avenues, chiefly formed by vines. A pond, with *jets d'eau*, runs along its top, and the views from hence are extensive, and, in spring, are said to be pleasant. Behind it the hills rise rapidly, and are scattered with numerous churches."

The cathedral is very ancient; it is of considerable size, and handsome architecture. About two miles below the town, on the Koor, there is an hospital and botanic garden. The citadel, built by the Turks in 1576, occupies a commanding situation on a high, insulated hill, and has been a place of considerable strength.

The warm baths, from which the town derives its name,* are strongly impregnated with sulphuretted hydrogen; their temperature is from 100° to 112° Fahrenheit. Champooing is here a favourite operation. Georgians of rank, especially the ladies, devote a whole day in every week to the baths, and not unfrequently pass a night in them. Here, reclining on their couches, they have their hair and nails dyed black, and paint their faces red and white, torturing themselves to make the eyebrows join, which is deemed absolutely essential in a Georgian beauty. Within these few years, Crown baths have been erected, in which is found every accommodation necessary for a luxurious bath.

The name of Georgia, which formerly comprehended the states of Mingrelia and Imiretia, is now exclusively applied to the four provinces of Cartuel (or Cartelinia), Kaket (or Cakhetia), Kisik, and Georgian Armenia. Mount Caucasus bounds the district to the

* Properly *Tyflis-Kalaki*, or Tflissi, warm town.

north; on the north-west, a desert divides it from Imiretia; on the west and south, it is divided by mountains from the Turkish and Persian provinces of Akiska and Erivan; and on the east it is bounded by Daghestan and Shirvan. The climate, soil, and face of the country render it one of the most beautiful and highly favoured regions in the world. The valleys, especially, are extremely fertile, producing cotton, rice, wheat, millet, hemp, and flax, with little labour or skill. The hills are clothed with the pine, the oak, the elm, the ash, the chestnut, and the walnut-tree; and the vine grows wild, producing vast quantities of grapes. The country is well watered: the principal river is the Koor. From May to November, the weather is extremely fine; the air at all times is dry, but the winters are sometimes very cold. The Georgians are considered as the most numerous and powerful body of the mountaineers of Caucasus. Their manners and customs, in several respects, resemble those of the Persians. The nobility are numerous, and possess an unlimited power of life and death over their vassals. The women have long been celebrated for their beauty, and the market at Constantinople is supplied with female slaves from Georgia, as well as from Circassia. While it was an independent state, the prevalent religion was Christianity. In 1639, the Persian monarch, having conquered it, compelled the inhabitants to profess Islamism; but since the country has been subject to Russia, they have again avowed themselves Christians, following partly the rites of the Armenian, but chiefly those of the Greek Church.

Georgia was subject to the ancient Persians till the time of Alexander the Great. On his death, it seems to have become an independent kingdom, but was constantly liable to the inroads of the Turks and the Per-

sians, till, in 1576, it was divided between them, though a nominal sovereign still remained to the Georgians. In 1586, this sovereign implored the assistance of the Russians, who built a town upon the Terek. Georgia, however, still continued to be exposed to devastation from the Turks and the Persians; and in 1735, it was entirely subdued by the latter power. In 1783, Prince Heraclius, the son of the viceroy of Georgia, ceded two of its provinces on which he had seized, to Russia; but, in 1787, he was obliged to renounce his connexion with Russia, and to acknowledge himself tributary to the Porte. At the peace between Russia and the Porte, in 1791, the Georgians were declared independent. Four years afterwards, Tiflis was ravaged and burned by the Khan of Persia. On the death of Heraclius, in 1798, his sons quarrelled, and the eldest submitted himself and his people to the Emperor Paul. Since that period, it has become a province of the Russian empire. The present chief towns, besides Tiflis and Annanoor, already described, are Gori, a small place; Telav, equally mean; and Signag, which contains only about 300 inhabitants. The total population of Georgia is estimated at 371,200; a fourth part of which are Armenians.

The military line of defence on the north of the Caucasus, formed by the Russians, extending from Taman on the Black Sea, to the shores of the Caspian, is nearly 1,000 versts (667 miles) in length. It is composed of fortresses and redoubts, which prevent all communication between Asia and Europe, except to those who have regular passports. The southern line f defence of the Caucasus runs from Suhum-kale on the Black Sea, to Baku on the Caspian, and is equally well protected. From Baku to Derbent and Kislar, by the western shores of the Caspian, another line of defence is formed. Thus, the range of the Caucasus

is completely surrounded with fortresses, except on that part by the eastern border of the Black Sea, between Suhum-kale and Anapa.

Among the numerous mountain tribes of the Caucasus, next to the Georgians, the most remarkable are the Ossetinians, who differ from all the rest in language and features. Blue eyes, and fair or red hair, are very common among them. The men are strong, well-made, and of middle stature; the women small and far from handsome, their faces being round, and their noses flat. Like all the other tribes of the Caucasus, they are greatly addicted to plunder and assassination: their dress and arms resemble those of the Circassians. Like all rude tribes, they are hospitable: a stranger, while in their villages, is certain of good treatment; but if he leave without an escort, he most probably will be plundered by the very man whose hospitality he had shared the preceding evening. Their religion is a singular mixture of Christianity, Mohammedism, and ancient superstitions. Their oaths are singular: when one of them is accused of theft, he generally swears by a dog, a cat, or by the dead. "The accused with a dog, runs through the village, crying with a loud voice, 'I am about to kill this dog.' After which, the real thief generally avows his fault, because it is believed, that to be accessary to the death of a dog would lead to misfortune. It often happens, that he who takes an oath, cuts off the head of a cat, or hangs a dog, saying, that the animal will avenge itself of the perjured person, by scratching, biting, and tormenting the guilty. Whoever suspects one of his neighbours to have stolen, conducts him to the place where his relations are interred, when the accused, placing himself near the tomb of his father, mother, or brother, cries out, 'If I have stolen, I

wish to serve as a horse in the other world, to my father, my mother, or my brother; but if I am innocent, may that punishment fall upon the guilty.' When an Ossetinian dies, all his relations assemble. The men uncover the head and the hips, and lash themselves till blood appears; and the women scratch their faces, bite their arms, and cry in a dreadful manner. The wife of the deceased ought to be more violent than the rest, and to abstain for a year from all kinds of meat and other things prohibited during the fast. Generally, her husband's brother espouses her, even when he has another wife, with a view of preserving the property in the family. Every family has its own sepulchre, which, among some tribes, is an immense square building, with a very narrow entrance. Two men enter it, drawing after them the body of the deceased, stretched upon planks. When it is entirely consumed, they mix the bones with those of others of the family."*

In the middle of the sixteenth century, the Czar Ivan II. conquered the Great and Little Kabarda, on the northern frontiers of the Caucasus, districts inhabited by one of the most numerous and interesting of the Circassian tribes. Their connexion with Russia, therefore, as well as the celebrity of their name, entitles them to a brief notice in this place.

The origin of the Circassians is involved in much uncertainty. The Don Cossacks, who are evidently referrible to the same family, call them *Tcherkas*, or *Tcherkessi*, of which the word Circassian is obviously a corruption; and the same word, under a slight vari-

* Many of these observations, which are taken from "*Voyage au Caucase et en Georgie*," (tom. ii. p. 223,) are, in the opinion of Dr. Lyall, as applicable to a number of the other tribes of the Caucasus, as to the Ossetinians.

ation, has given name to the town of Tcherkasky, *i. e.* the village of the Tcherkas, or Circassians. The original country of the Cossacks is said to have been called Chazakia, and to have been a part of Circassia. "The Circassians of the present day," says Dr. Clarke, "are a horde of banditti, inhabiting the region whence the Cossacks originally descended. Continually repelled from their ancient boundary, the Tanais and Lake Mæotis, and ultimately driven beyond the Kuban and the Terek, they hang upon the northern sides of Caucasus, or carry on predatory incursions from the swampy plains at its feet, about 200 miles above Tcherkask. They are almost always engaged in war with the Cossacks, and the petty princes are continually at war with one another. Pallas says, that the Circassian bears no affinity to any other language, and that, according to report, the *uzdens*, or nobles, speak a dialect unknown to the common people. The fact is, that the languages of Caucasus are as various as the principalities, and have little or no apparent affinity.* Of all the Circassian tribes, the Lesgians, inhabiting the mountains of Daghestan, ranging nearly parallel to the western coast of the Caspian, bear the

* "The languages referred to the Caucasian order have little more in common than their geographical situation in the immediate neighbourhood of the Caucasian mountains. Except the Armenian and the Georgian, they are scarcely even employed in writing; and principally, perhaps, from this cause, they exhibit as great a diversity in the space of a few square miles, as those of many other nations do in as many thousands. The Abassic nations (or *Absne*) seem to be old inhabitants of the Caucasian country; the Circassians are situated to the east of them, on the promontory of north Caucasus; the Ossetes on the left of the Terek, north of the mountains. The *Kistic*, spoken by the Ingushans and their neighbours at the head of the Terek, is connected with the Tushetan Georgian. The Lesgians, east of Caucasus, on the Caspian Sea have a number of distinct dialects, or rather languages. Thus,

worst reputation. "Their very name excites terror among the neighbouring principalities, and it is used as a term of reproach by many of the natives of Caucasus." The most interesting branch of the Circassian nation are the Cabardians, or Kabardines, who inhabit the frontiers of the Caucasus. This tribe, Pallas says, "consider themselves as descendants of the Arabs; and it is not improbable," he adds, "that they are the remains of those armies which were formerly sent to the Caucasus by the Khalifs: according to others, they are the descendants of the Mamelukes.* It is confirmed by general tradition, that they formerly inhabited the Crimea. The upper part of the River Belbik, in the Crimea, is to this day called Kabarda; and the whole of that beautiful country situate between the Kabarda and the Kastcha, continues to be termed by the Tâtars, *Tsherkestus*. The name of this people seems also to have been preserved in their mountainous fort, called *Tsherkes-Kermen*, the ruins of which are still discoverable. At what period they extended their habitations along the banks of the Kuban, and in the country of the Beshtau, cannot easily be determined. They call themselves, like all the families of the Circassians, by the general name of *Adigees*; perhaps they are the *Cercetæ* of Strabo." "About sixty years ago," adds the learned Traveller, "these people professed the Christian religion; but since that time,

the *Chunsag*, the *Dido*, the *Kasi-Kumuk*, the *Andi*, and the *Akusha*, have little or no connexion with each other."—See *Quart. Rev.*, vol. x. p. 285, (Art. *Adelung's Mithridates*). Also MOD. TRAV., *Mexico*, vol. i. pp. 191—3.

* It is a coincidence worth noticing, that the tribe occupying the country at the foot of Mount Kashkatau, are governed by the *Dshambulat* (or *Djambelat*) family; and one of the principal Druse families bears the name of *Djonbelat*.—See MOD. TRAV., *Syria*, vol. i. p. 89.

they have become indifferent and ignorant Mohammedans." Islam Abaziwan, a Cabardian nobleman, told Mr. Glen, that their ancestors in Cabardia were Christians, and he frankly avowed that the manners of his countrymen were then less depraved. "Then," he said, "a man's bare word could be depended upon: now, the most solemn engagements and promises are disregarded." The recent date of this adoption of Islamism is not a little remarkable, and somewhat at variance with the tradition respecting their Arabian descent.* The most populous, powerful, wealthy, and cleanly of all the Circassian tribes, are the Temirgoi, who border with the Mukoshians, near the rivulet

* From this Cabardian, Mr. Glen obtained the following particulars respecting the mountain tribes in the vicinity of Karass. "On the north side of Elborz, the Kuban takes its rise, the banks of which, near its source, are peopled by the Caratchai, a Tatar tribe. The number of families, according to Islam, is about 300, and, like the Cabardians, they are Mohammedans. Beyond the Caratchai, on the south-west line, live the Hashipsi, or, as the Cabardians name them, Abazas, who speak a language of their own, differing from the Tatar, the Cabardian, and that of the neighbouring tribes. They, too, are the followers of Mohammed. The rivulets by which their country is watered, run towards the Black Sea. At a still greater distance is another people, named the Soanas, who, like the Abazas, have a language of their own, which bears no resemblance to any which the Cabardians have had an opportunity of hearing. They call themselves Christians, and their books, or rather those of their forefathers, which none of them can read, are lodged in their churches, which are falling into decay. Of this people there are three tribes, one of which is only about thirty versts from the Abazas. The other two tribes are distant from the Abazas about two days' journey on the other side of the mountain. Between the Abazas and Georgia, the mountains are impassable for persons on horseback, but may be crossed, though not without difficulty, by a few active young men on foot. On the north-east of Elborz, the Shegim river takes its rise, directing its course to the Caspian. On the banks of it, to a considerable distance from its source, live the Shegims. The number of families belonging to this tribe, is from two to three hundred. They pro-

Arim, which falls into the Bulansu, and extend to the Psega, which falls into the Shaukesha, a tributary of the Kuban: they are frequently at war with their neighbours, the Abassine tribes of Tubi and Ubikh.

Pallas describes the Circassians as representing "a species of knights, who observe a complete feudal system among themselves, as well as towards their subjects, not unlike that formerly exercised, though with still greater severity and cruelty, by the German knights of Prussia and Livonia. Considering the subject in this point of view," he remarks, "and admitting that the princes and nobility alone constitute the nation; that their subjects almost uniformly are the slaves of other nations subjugated by war, who, by adopting the language of their conquerors, have been treated with lenity; and that a free and gallant race of knights will not bear a foreign yoke without great reluctance; we shall then be enabled to judge with more candour and impartiality of their aristocratic constitution, as well as of their continual wars and revolts, not only against their former Khans of the Crimea, but also against their present masters. It is a fortunate circumstance, that their intestine feuds, and the divided power of this heroic people among a

fess the Mohammedan religion, and speak a dialect of the Tatar language. Further down, however, the banks of the Shegim are peopled by the Cabardians, whose border, on the south, extends from the Caratchai country, along the bottom of the snow mountains, as far as the eye can reach. Their northern frontier, in the neighbourhood of Beshtau, is the Podcuma, a few versts distant from the spot on which we took our observations. West of the Abazas, the mountains are inhabited by various tribes, the greater part of which speak dialects of the Cabardian, Abaza, and Tatar languages. East of the Shegims, they are inhabited by tribes speaking dialects of a great many different languages, of which the most noted are the Tchitchian and Ossetinian; but of these and other eastern tribes, his information was not so minute."

number of contending petty princes, renders them less dangerous. Indeed, it were to be wished that they could be converted into good subjects, and somewhat more habituated to an orderly life, without curbing their bravery and heroic spirit. If such measures were adopted, we may confidently assert, that their light cavalry would form the most determined and dreaded body of troops that ever appeared in a field of battle."

Dr. Clarke says: "Examples of heroism may be observed among them which would have dignified the character of the Romans in the most virtuous periods of their history. Among the prisoners in the Cossack army, we saw some of the Circassians who had performed feats of valour, perhaps unparalleled. The commander-in-chief, General Drascovitz, maintained, that in all the campaigns he had served, whether against Turks or the more disciplined armies of Europe, he had never witnessed instances of greater bravery than he had seen among the Circassians. The troops of other nations, when surrounded by superior numbers, readily yield themselves prisoners of war; but the Circassian, while a spark of like remains, will continue to combat, even with a multitude of enemies. We saw a Circassian chief in the prison at Ekaterinedara, about thirty-five years of age, who had received fifteen desperate wounds before he fell, and was made prisoner, having fainted from loss of blood. This account was given to us by his bitterest enemies, and may therefore surely be trusted. He was first attacked by three of the Cossack cavalry. It was their object to take him alive if possible, on account of his high rank and the consideration in which he was held by his own countrymen. Every endeavour was therefore used to attack him in such a manner as not to endanger his life. This intention

was soon perceived by the Circassian, who determined not to surrender. With his single sabre, he shivered their three lances at the first onset, and afterwards wounded two of the three assailants. At length, surrounded by others who came to their assistance, he fell, covered with wounds, in the midst of his enemies, fighting to the last moment. We visited him in his prison, where he lay stretched upon a plank, bearing the anguish of his terrible wounds without a groan. They had recently extracted the iron point of a lance from his side. A young Circassian girl was employed in driving flies from his face with a green bough. All our expressions of concern and regard were lost upon him: we offered him money, but he refused to accept of it, handing it to his fellow-prisoners as if totally ignorant of its use. In the same place of confinement stood a Circassian female, about twenty years of age, with fine light brown hair, extremely beautiful, but pale and hardly able to support herself, through grief and weakness. The Cossack officers stated, that when they captured this woman, she was in excellent health; but that ever since, owing to her separation from her husband, she had refused all offer of food; and, as she pined daily, they feared she would die. It may be supposed, we spared no entreaty with the commander-in-chief for the release of these prisoners. Before the treaty of peace, they had been offered to the highest bidder, the women selling generally from twenty-five to thirty rubles a-piece, somewhat less than the price of a horse. But we were told, it was now too late, as they were included in the list for exchange, and must therefore remain until the Cossacks, who were prisoners in Circassia, were delivered up. The poor woman in all probability did not live to see her husband or her country again.

Another Circassian female, fourteen years of age, who was also in confinement, hearing of the intended exchange of prisoners, expressed her wishes to remain where she was. Conscious of her great beauty, she feared her parents would sell her, according to the custom of the country, and that she might fall to the lot of masters less humane than the Cossacks. The Circassians frequently sell their children to strangers, particularly to Persians and Turks. Their princes supply the Turkish seraglios with the most beautiful of the prisoners of both sexes captured in war."

In their amusements, the youth of both sexes converse freely with each other, as the Circassian women in general are neither confined nor reserved. In their courtships, however, the strictest attention is paid to the rank of the parties; and no noble dares court the daughter of a prince. Among the higher orders, some very singular domestic customs prevail, which are detailed by Pallas, bearing a striking analogy to those which Strabo relates of the Gargarenses and Amazons. Their female offspring are nourished in the most sparing manner, that they may acquire a slender and elegant form. The Circassian girls generally, between the tenth and twelfth years of their age, are invested with a broad girdle of untanned leather, tightly sewed round the waist, which they are obliged to wear till they marry: it is the office of the bridegroom, to cut this "girdle of chastity" with his dagger. Over the chemise is worn a laced jacket, with a petticoat, open in front, and reaching to the ancles, to which, in the married women, are added wide drawers. The head-dress is a cap, nearly resembling that worn by the men. Wooden clogs are worn on leaving the house, and mittens on the hands. Painting the face is considered as an indication of want of chastity;

but the girls are permitted to die their nails with *hnd*. The women are not uniformly Circassian beauties; but are for the most part well-formed, with a white skin, dark brown or black hair, and regular features. The men, especially those of the higher class, are mostly tall, very slender about the loins, with small feet, but strong and muscular, and have a very martial appearance. Their dress, in some respects, resembles that of the Tâtars, but is more elegant. On the head, which is shorn in the Polish fashion, is worn an embroidered cap, quilted with cotton, in the form of a melon. The whiskers are suffered to grow, as is common among the Poles: the priests let the whole beard grow, and wear a deep red turban and scarlet breeches. Persons of distinction have the seams of their upper garments bound with small lace or embroidery, which the women very skilfully manufacture of gold or silver threads. When a prince or noble pays a visit in full dress, he generally puts on his jacket of mail. These coats of mail are manufactured of polished steel rings, and are imported from Persia and Kubesha. The helmet and arm-plates are of polished steel. Persons of rank never leave the house without a sabre; and they generally have their breast-pockets supplied with ball-cartridges. A Circassian noble, mounted and in complete armour, is a most picturesque and imposing figure.

The two opposite customary laws, those of hospitality and revenge, are sacredly observed among the Circassian knights, as well as among most of the Caucasian tribes. Music and dancing are favourite amusements among them. The peasants not only cultivate millet, maize, and vegetables, but have numerous herds and flocks of goats and sheep, horned cattle and horses; rear poultry of all descriptions, and bestow considerable

attention on their bees. Mead is their favourite beverage: besides which, they are very fond of a sort of beer made of millet, which is called *busa*. The most important object of attention among the *uzdens*, is the rearing of fine horses, in which they are as particular as the Arabs themselves.

In their villages and houses, as well as in their food and dress, Pallas says, the Circassians are extremely clean. Their houses are slightly built of close wicker work, plastered with clay, and roofed with slight rafters, covered with strong grass: they have a chimney and fire-place. They are built contiguous to each other, in squares or circles, so that the inner space serves as a common cattle-yard: the residence of the *uzden*, however, is generally detached. Their principal tombs are of an oblong form, built of hewn stones; and some of the sepulchres of the princes are handsome edifices.

Such are the leading particulars of the description furnished by Pallas of the Circassians of Kabarda. In some respects, the account he gives, is not quite consistent with itself; and there is reason to suspect, that the differing manners and customs of distinct tribes are not sufficiently discriminated. There is also, perhaps, a little that is fanciful in the description of these free and gallant Circassian knights, the feudal barons of Caucasus. Much remains to be ascertained, and almost every thing requires to be verified, relating to these mountain tribes: they will, in all probability, be found to have descended from refugees of various nations, — Greek, Arab, Persian, Tâtar, and Polish, who have, at different periods, fought out for themselves a shelter in these almost inaccessible regions.

We have now traced two of the principal rivers that

water the southern provinces of Russia, along nearly the whole of their respective courses, till they fall, the Don into the Sea of Azof, and the Dnieper into the Euxine; and have described the districts through which they flow, as well as those which lie between the Turkish and the Persian frontiers of Russia, the Crimea, Cuban Tartary, the Caucasus, and Georgia. One other principal river remains to be noticed, by tracing the course of which till it falls into the Caspian, we shall complete our survey of the central and southern provinces of this immense empire. It will then only remain to trace the routes from Moscow to its eastern limits.

FROM MOSCOW TO ASTRAKAN.

Our principal guide in describing the route from Moscow to Astrakan, where the Volga falls into the Caspian, will be Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Russian embassies to Persia and China, in the year 1715, and enjoyed the best opportunities for observation and inquiry. Mr. Bell embarked on the Moskva, which, about three versts below the episcopal city of Kolomna, enters the Oka. This is a fortified place, and the capital of the district. It stands on the right bank of the Moskva, and is traversed by a small stream, called the Kolomenka, which here falls into it. It is 100 versts from Moscow. It is tolerably well built, and contains eighteen churches, a monastery, a nunnery, and between 5 and 6,000 inhabitants. Its principal trade is in cattle; there are also linen, silk, and cotton manufactories here, and considerable tile-kilns. Six days after entering the Oka, Mr. Bell arrived at Riazan (or Rezan), an archiepiscopal city, which formerly bore the name of Pereaslavl Riazan-

skoi,* distant 191 versts from Moscow: it stands on the Trubesh, near its confluence with the Oka. The village of Starai Riazan (old Riazan), which stands on the banks of the Oka, about fifty versts from the modern town, occupies the site of a large and powerful city, the capital of an independent dutchy of the same name. It was destroyed in 1568, by the Tâtars. Riazan is an inconsiderable place, containing a population of about 6,000 souls. The next place of interest is Kassimof Czarevitz, formerly the residence of a Tâtar prince, from whom it takes its name: it was anciently called Gorodetz. It stands on a calcareous mountain, which here forms the left bank of the Oka, where the river is 100 fathoms in breadth, 140 versts from Rezan. It is a place of some trade, but the houses are of wood; the population, which is partly Tâtar, is under 5,000. The Oka now leaving the government of Rezan, enters that of Vladimir, and flows by the episcopal city of Mourum, situated on an elevation. This place is of high antiquity, being the seat of a Sarmatian colony at a period antecedent to the Russian annals; and was anciently an appanage of the younger sons of the princes of Kiev. Being a frontier town, it repeatedly suffered from the incursions of the Bulgarians. The town has its kremlin, or citadel; and contains a handsome cathedral, seventeen churches, two monasteries, a nunnery, and about 4,500 inhabitants. About twenty-five versts from Mourum, on the east bank of the river, are found rich iron mines; and sixty versts below the city, begins a

* So called to distinguish it from the ancient Pereaslavl in the Ukraine, situated on the Dnieper. The name Perea-Slavl was assumed by Oleg, a Tatar invader, in the tenth century, to commemorate his conquests.

vein of alabaster, which extends to Nishnei-Novogorod. This latter city, the capital of a government to which it gives name, is situated on the high banks of the Oka, opposite to where it loses itself in the Volga. It stands in lat. 56° 16′ N., long. 44° 18′ E.; 1,120 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 390 from Moscow. Its situation at the confluence of two of the principal rivers of Central Russia, is extremely well adapted for commerce; and the largest portion of the internal trade of the empire centres here. It communicates at once with the provinces of the north, with the Baltic, and with Moscow. The produce of Siberia, of the Ural Mountains, and of China, is brought to it by means of the Kama, which joins the Volga near Kazan. By the Lower Volga and caravans is brought the produce of Central Asia and of South-eastern Russia and Persia; and it is supplied with European commodities from Moscow, St. Petersburgh, and Odessa. The great and obvious advantages of its situation, it is said, once suggested to Peter the Great the idea of making it the capital of the Russian empire. Its commercial importance has lately been much increased by the removal to it of the great annual fair which used to be held at Makarief, eighty-four versts distant. This fair is well known over Europe; it generally lasts from six weeks to two months. Bazars have been erected for the accommodation of those who attend this fair, which, according to Dr. Lyall, form the finest establishment of the kind in the world. The sale of iron and iron articles usually amounts to above 10,000,000 rubles; the furs to 36,000,000; the images to 1,300,000. Captain Cochrane is of opinion, that "the fair, in point of value, is second to none in Europe; the business done being estimated at nearly 200,000,000 rubles." The population of the place is

supposed then to amount to 120, or even 150,000; among whom may be seen Chinese, Persians, Circassians, Armenians, Tâtars, Bucharians, Jews, and a "specimen of almost every European nation." Nor are theatrical exhibitions, shows of wild beasts, and other Bartholomew-fair amusements, wanting to add to the attractions of the scene. The fixed population is estimated at between 15 and 16,000, Russians and Tâtars. The upper part of the city, "though surrounded with the stubborn remains of the old citadel (the kremlin) and Tâtar wall," is, according to Captain Cochrane's account, peculiarly pleasant and airy. The lower town, occupied chiefly by the traders, consists of one very long street near the river. The suburbs are execrably filthy. There is an elegant bridge on pontoons across the Oka. The Kremlin contains two cathedrals; besides which, there are in other parts of the town, three convents and twenty-six churches, a public seminary, and a school. The resident population are chiefly engaged in commerce; but there are distilleries, breweries, tanneries, soap-works, and other manufactories. It is the residence of an archbishop.

Captain Cochrane *walked* from Moscow to Nishnei. The first day, passing through several small villages, he reached "Bouncova, lying in a well-cultivated and picturesque country;" a distance of twenty-five miles. The next place he came to was Vladimir, a fine city, on the left banks of the Kliasma, once the capital of all Ducal Russia, and now the head-town of a small government, and seat of an archbishop. It stands in lat. 56° 2′ 15″ N., and is reckoned 902 versts from St. Petersburgh, and 175 from Moscow; but, according to Captain Cochrane's calculation, it cannot be so far from the latter city. Its situation, he says, "is beautiful, standing on a considerable eminence, which

overhangs the river, and commands a fine view of the surrounding country. There are still remaining, many traces of its former greatness, such as the royal palace and gardens, a range of public offices, and several handsome churches." Like all the ancient towns of Russia, it has its kremlin. The population is estimated at between 4 and 5,000, who carry on some trade, manufacture linen, and cultivate their garden-grounds and orchards, famous for their cherries, immense quantities of which are sent to Moscow. Being on the high road to the fair of Nishnei, as well as in the line of communication with Siberia, this place is a great thoroughfare, and often presents a very busy scene.

From Vladimir, our Pedestrian proceeded through Soudogda and Morshok to Dratchevo, where he obtained a lift in a vehicle to Mourum. There, hiring a canoe, he paddled across the Oka, and passed through a dreary, marshy country to Manacovo. A prettier country, well wooded, extends to Pogost, distant, according to our Traveller's calculation, forty miles from Mourum. This town is not ill built, and has an annual fair. A walk of fourteen miles over a cross road, through the beautiful valley of the Oka, the next morning, brought him to the iron-works of Pavlovo, "the Birmingham of Russia." On the evening of the following day, he reached Nishnei, where he embarked on the Volga in a lighter bound to Kazan.

Makarief, a straggling, ill-built place, is the first inhabited spot on the left bank of the Volga, after leaving Nishnei; and beyond it, the country on that side is a universal waste. On the right bank, the voyager passes Vasili-sourski, Kosmodemiarski, Tche-

baksar,* and Siviatski. At the latter place is the remnant of an old stone castle: it is thirty-two versts from Kazan.

This city, inferior only to the capitals, is situated on the small river Kazanka, about four versts from where it falls into the Volga: it is 735 versts from Moscow by land, but much more by water. It stands in lat. 55° 47′ 51″ N., long. 49° 21′ 9″ E. The city was nearly destroyed by fire about six years ago; but it has been in a great measure rebuilt in a more substantial and regular manner. It is the see of an archbishop, and the seat of a university. Its population is estimated at 40,000, of whom 12,000 are Tâtars, who dwell in the suburbs. The Kazan Tâtars are said to be a more civilised people than their Russian masters. "The Tâtar who is unable to read and write, is held in very little estimation by his countrymen; and, hence, it is a leading consideration with the fathers of families to send their children to school at an early age, with a view to their being instructed in reading, writing, and the principles of religion. To promote

* "In this country," says Mr. Bell, "are caught the best and largest falcons in the world, much esteemed for their strength and beauty, particularly by the Turks and Persians, who purchase them very dear. The Russians take few young hawks from the nest, preferring the old ones, which they train very dexterously to fly at swan, goose, crane, or heron. The Tatars fly them at antelopes and hares. I have seen them take a wild-duck out of the water, when nothing of her could be perceived but the bill, which she was obliged to put up for air. Some of them are as white as a dove. The manner of catching them is very simple: they erect a tall pole upon a hill, free from wood, on a bank of the river, near which is placed a jay-net; under the net some small birds are fastened by a cord, which the hawk-catcher pulls to make them flutter on the appearance of the hawk, who, observing his prey, first perches on the pole; and when he stoops to seize the bird, the person who is concealed by the bushes, draws the net and covers him."

these objects, every mosque has its proper school attached to it. Many of the Tâtar merchants of Kazan are very rich, nearly the whole trade being in their hands. The chief articles are soap, leather, potash, skins, wax, tallow, and gunpowder.

Kazan, on approaching it from the westward, Capt. Cochrane says, greatly resembles Badajos as approached from Elvas. It is built partly on a declivity, partly on a swampy plain, which is subject to annual inundation. These marshes render the place in dry weather very unhealthy. There was formerly a cathedral on the site of the ancient mosque, as also a palace, both of which were destroyed by an explosion in the citadel at the time of the fire. It has several handsome churches, four convents, one Lutheran church, and several mosques. "Among the churches is one which gave rise to that beautiful building, the Kazan church at St. Petersburgh, though its architecture would seem to denote a theatre." The province of Kazan is extensive, well wooded, and fertile, but low and insalubrious: it sends great quantities of corn to the capital. The woods to the south and west consist of stately oaks, "sufficient to supply all the navies in the world." They abound with game. The population is estimated at 900,000. Above half are peasants or slaves; four-fifths of whom belong to the crown, the rest to the nobles.

Mr. Bell was obliged to remain at Kazan during the winter, the Volga having been filled with floating ice early in September. In the following May, the river was still so high and rapid, that it was reckoned dangerous to proceed. At last, on the 4th of June, he embarked; on the 25th, he landed at Saratof, a large town about 850 versts from Kazan. There he had an opportunity of visiting a great horse-market held on

the opposite side of the river, by the Calmuck Tâtars. About 5 or 600 of these people were assembled in a field, with a number of horses all running loose, except those on which the Tâtars were mounted. The buyers come from various parts of Russia. "The Tâtars had their tents pitched along the river side. These tents are of a conical figure: several long poles are erected, inclining to one another, which are fixed at the top into something like a hoop, that forms the circumference of an aperture for letting out the smoke or admitting the light. Across the poles are laid some small rods from four to six feet long, and fastened to them with thongs. This frame is covered with pieces of felt, made of coarse wool and hair. These tents afford better shelter than any other kind; and are so contrived as to be set up, taken down, folded and packed up with great ease and quickness, and are so light, that a camel may carry five or six of them. Where the khan or any person of distinction resides, they are placed in right lines.

"These Tâtars," continues Mr. Bell, "were strongly made and stout, their faces broad, noses flattish, and eyes small and black but very quick. Their dress is very simple, consisting of a loose coat of sheepskin tied with a girdle; a small round cap, turned up with fur, having a tassel of silk at the top; leather or linen drawers, and boots. Their heads are all shaved, except a lock behind, which is plaited and hangs down the back. They are armed with a bow and arrows, a sabre, and a lance, which they manage with great dexterity, acquired by constant practice from their infancy. They are men of courage and resolution, but much afraid of cannon, which puts their horses in disorder. As they are almost always on horseback, they are excellent riders. The dress of the women

differs little from that of the men; only their gowns are somewhat longer than the coats of the men, a little ornamented, and bordered with party-coloured cloth. They wear earrings and their hair all plaited in locks. The better sort dress in silks in summer. It must be observed, for the honour of the women, that they are very honest and sincere. Adultery is a crime scarcely ever heard of. The Tâtars make very good and faithful servants; and the more mildly they are used, the more faithfully they perform their duty; for their wandering, unconfined manner of life naturally inspires them with sentiments of liberty, and an aversion and hatred to tyranny and oppression. All their wealth is in their flocks. Like those who lived in the early ages of the world, they have camels, horses, cows, and sheep. The horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy: as they run wild till they are sometimes six years old, they are generally headstrong. They are sold, at this fair, at from five to sixteen crowns, and the strong, well-shaped, natural pacers, much higher. Their cows are of a middle size; the sheep large, having broad tails like those in Turkey: the wool is coarse, but the mutton very fine.

"They have no money, except what they get from the Russians and their other neighbours, in exchange for cattle. With this, they buy meat sometimes, but mostly cloth, silk stuffs, and other apparel, for their women. They have no mechanics, except those who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greatest slavery: their only employment is tending their flocks, managing their horses, and hunting. If they are angry with a person, they wish he may live in one place, and work like a Russian. On long marches, all their provisions consist of cheese, or rather, dried curd, made up into little balls, which they drink when

pounded and mixed with water. If this kind of food fails, they have always many spare horses, which they kill and eat. They broil or roast the flesh before the fire, on pieces of broken arrows, and never eat it raw, as is commonly believed, unless in cases of necessity. They have, indeed, large thick pieces of horse-flesh, smoked or dried in the sun, which they eat; but this cannot properly be called raw. I have tasted some of it, and thought it not amiss. As to their religion, I can say little: they are downright heathens, and have many lamas or priests who can read and write, and are distinguished by their yellow habits. Their high priest is called *Delay Lama*, and lives far to the eastward."

So far Mr. Bell. From Dr. Clarke, Pallas, and other travellers, a few particulars may be added respecting this primitive race. They are believed to be the only nation that has retained the ancient language of the Moguls, who, under Jhengis Khan, in the thirteenth century, subdued the finest districts of Asia. They have also, in a great measure, preserved the manners, dress, and religion of their ancestors. Their original territories were very extensive, stretching along the southern boundaries of Siberia as far as the Selenga on the east, and skirting the empire of China, they reached, on the south, towards the confines of Ava. On the north-west, they were bounded by the Mogul empire, Great Bucharia, and Turkestan. Such was their territory so lately as the beginning of the last century; but the encroachments of the Russians and Chinese have greatly contracted it. At present, they are scattered over various and very distant parts of central and south-western Asia. The most numerous and powerful tribes inhabit the country between the Caspian, Samarcand, and Cashgar. Both

banks of the Volga, as well as both sides of the Don and the Ural, are also the haunts of this race. Mr. Bell has well described their very peculiar physiognomy, which distinguishes them from all the other nations of Asia: it is, indeed, very forbidding, but those who possess the national features in the highest degree, are, among them, regarded as the most beautiful. Their hospitable disposition is attested by all travellers. Their disgusting habits are thus strongly painted by Dr. Clarke. "Within the tent we found some women, though it was difficult to distinguish the sexes, so horrid and inhuman was their appearance. The old women were eating raw horse-flesh, tearing it off from large bones, which they held in their hands." They are by no means courageous. They are expert at some kinds of manufactures, especially inlaid work and enamelling; and Dr. Clarke and other travellers assure us, that, from time immemorial, they have possessed the art of making gunpowder. This Traveller, as well as most others who have seen them, represents their food as much more loathsome than Mr. Bell seems to have imagined, consisting of cattle and horses who have died of disease, dogs, cats, marmots, rats; and the poorer sort sometimes feed upon carrion. Their favourite dish, during a journey, is a piece of flesh placed under the saddle of a horse, which, by warmth and pressure, becomes a tender steak. The preparation of *koumis*, or rather, of a sort of rack made from it, is thus described by Dr. Clarke: "Their still was constructed of mud, or very coarse clay; and for the neck of the retort, they employed a cane. The receiver of the still was entirely covered with a coat of wet clay. The brandy had already passed over. The woman who had the management of the distillery, wishing to give us a taste of the spirit, thrust a stick,

with a small tuft of camel's hair at its end, through the external covering of the clay; and thus, collecting a small quantity of the brandy, she received it into the palm of her dirty and greasy hand, and having tasted the liquor, presented it to our lips." They are so fond of being on horseback, that the ceremony of marriage is sometimes performed in this manner. "A girl is first mounted," Dr. Lyall informs us, "who rides off at full speed. Her lover pursues, and if he overtakes her, she becomes his wife, and the marriage is consummated upon the spot; after which, she returns with him to his tent. But it sometimes happens, that the woman does not wish to marry the person by whom she is pursued, in which case she will not suffer him to overtake her; and we were assured, that no instance occurs of a Calmuck girl being thus caught, unless she had a partiality for her pursuer. If she dislikes him, she rides, to use the language of English sportsmen, 'neck or nothing,' until she has completely escaped, or until the pursuer's horse is tired out, leaving her at liberty to return, to be afterwards chased by some more favourite admirer." The majority of the Calmucks profess the religion of Thibet. They have two written characters; one very ancient and sacred, read from left to right; the other, used in common concerns, is read from top to bottom.

From Saratof, Mr. Bell descended the Volga to Astrakan, passing the place where Captain Parry, an Englishman in great favour with Peter the Great, was employed in attempting to cut a canal between the Volga and the Don: the attempt, however, did not succeed. On the islands of the Volga, he observed great quantities of liquorice growing wild. On one of these islands Astrakan is situated, about sixty versts from the Caspian Sea, and 800 miles S.E. from

Moscow, in lat. 46° 21′ 12″ N., and long. 48° 2′ 45″ E. It is but ill-built; the houses are mostly of wood, and the walls of the Kremlin are in ruins, but it contains some handsome buildings. There are twenty-five Russian churches, two Armenian, one Lutheran, one Roman Catholic, two convents, and several mosques. It is the seat both of a Russian and an Armenian archbishop. There are several manufactories of silk, cotton, stuffs, morocco leather, and shagreen. As the great emporium of the Russian commerce in the East, it is furnished with a dock-yard and spacious quays; and its port is often crowded with shipping. Its permanent population is about 20,000. The commerce is chiefly in the hands of the Armenians; but the grand source of wealth is the fishery of the beluga, which brings in annually to the citizens of Astrakan, about a million of rubles.

The government of Astrakan is of very great extent, but in general is ill-cultivated. The chief rivers are the Volga and the Ural, both of which fall into the Caspian. The other Russian ports in this sea, besides Astrakan, are Kislear and Gurief; the last is a considerable place. The manufactures of this province are of considerable importance, especially those carried on near the capital: isinglass, caviare, nitre, silk, linen, and shagreen, are made in great quantities. The last is made from the hides of horses and asses, but only certain pieces from the back are fit for the purpose: the roughness is given by pressing the grains of the *orach* into the leather while moist. The lambskins of Astrakan are in great repute, especially for robes of ceremony, and for lining coats, &c.

There are two tribes of Cossacks in this part of Russia, those of the Volga, and those of the Ural: both are branches of the Don Cossacks. Those of the

Volga at first passed only their summers on that river; but at length, becoming stationary, they were, in 1734, declared independent of the parent stock. The Cossacks of the Ural first separated from the parent stock about the beginning of the fifteenth century, and established themselves at the mouth of that river: they now extend along it from the Ilek to the Caspian. They retain their Cossack constitution, and number 30,000 men fit to bear arms; whereas most of the Cossacks of the Volga are merchants and burghers.

FROM MOSCOW TO TOBOLSK.

In describing the route from Moscow to Tobolsk, we shall avail ourselves of Captain Cochrane's amusing narrative of his pedestrian journey. We have already accompanied him on this route as far as Kazan. The governor of that city obligingly gave him "a lift" in a *kibitka* as far as Perm, which he reached on the fourth day. Not far from Kazan, he crossed the Kama, which enters the Volga forty miles below that city. The country on the east side of the Kama is wild and dreary, interspersed with forests of fir, birch, and poplar, with nothing to interest except the Tâtar villages scattered at intervals of five or six miles. Mosquitoes are here very troublesome in summer. Perm is a considerable city, situated on the right bank of the Kama, in the midst of a thick forest, the trees of which extend to the very gates. It was built by the Empress Catherine in a regular and handsome manner, and contains about 8,000 inhabitants. Its trade is considerable, particularly in iron, copper, and salt. It is the capital of a province, in which, besides Russians, are found several half-civilised tribes, mostly of the Tâtar race. The total population of the pro-

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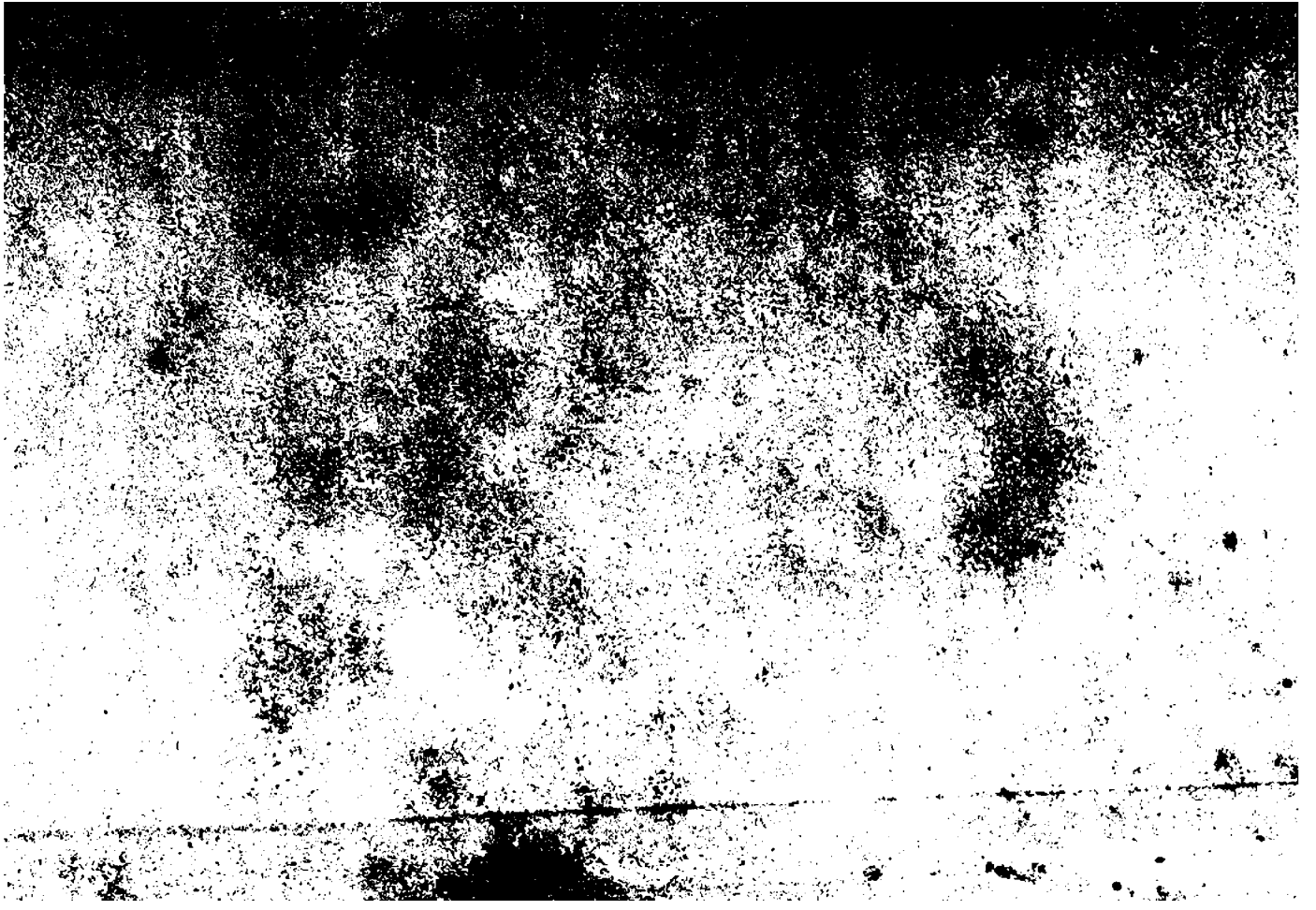

vince is estimated at 800,000. The soil is for the most part good: corn is both cheap and abundant, and is exported in large quantities. The face of the country is generally level, till near the Siberian frontier, at the base of the Ural mountains, which commence at the distance of 160 versts from Perm. "The ascent and descent of this mountain barrier," Capt. Cochrane says, "are so nearly imperceptible, that were it not for the precipitous banks every where to be seen, the traveller would hardly suppose he had crossed a range of hills." On reaching the Asiatic side, he found the inhabitants of all the villages "much more civil, more hospitable, and more cleanly dressed."

Ekaterinburgh, founded by Peter the Great, and so named in honour of his empress, is "the key of Siberia." Here, passports are rigorously examined. It is a well-built town, near the source of the Iset, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood are very large iron and copper founderies: the copper mines are nearly 300 miles distant. At twelve miles from the town are the gold mines of Berezofsky, the produce of which is, however, very trifling:* platina has recently been found in them. The inhabitants generally are bondsmen either to the Government or to private individuals. About 100 males and 20 females pass through this town weekly into Siberia, who, as exiles or criminals, are doomed to work in the mines and manufactories of Siberia. The rate of their progress is from ten to fifteen miles a day, except on Sundays and holydays. Houses are built at every station for their reception. If they become ill, the peasants are obliged to forward them

* "One guinea's worth of pure gold," Capt. C. says, "to every 4,000 lb. of earth."

in *telegas*. The wives and families of the convicts are permitted to accompany them, if they think proper.

Tuman is the first town in the government of Tobolsk, about 200 miles from that city, and the same distance from Ekaterinburgh. It was the first town built by the Russians in Siberia. From its local situation on the Toura, in the midst of populous villages and a fertile country, it enjoys a considerable trade in timber, tallow, hides, and embroidery: its population is about 8,000. Most of the stations between this town and Tobolsk lie on the banks of the Toura, which flows through a country well cultivated and abounding with immense herds of cattle. Captain Cochrane represents the inhabitants as wealthy and hospitable. The view of the city and fortress of Tobolsk, on arriving from the west, he describes as very fine.

Tobolsk stands in lat. 58° 11′ 42″ N., and in long. 68° 6′ 15″ E., 800 miles east of Moscow, at the confluence of the Irtish and the Tobol.* Tobolsk was formerly the capital of all Siberia, afterwards that of a province, and now of Western Siberia. The jurisdiction of the governor-general who resides here, comprehends Tomsk and Omsk, while the governor-general of Irkutsk rules also Yenisseisk, Yakutsk, Okotsk, and Kamtchatka. The town is fortified with a strong brick wall, having square towers and bastions,

* The Tobol, which has its source in the steppe of Kirguiss, is said to receive its name from a small tree which abounds on its banks, called by the Kirguiss *tobout*, and by the Russians *tavolga*. It is navigable from the mouth of the Ui. After a course of 500 versts, during which it receives the Iset, the Toura, and the Tavola on its left bank, it falls into the Irtish. The latter river, one of the largest in Northern Asia, comes from the country of the Mongols, traverses Lake Kizalpou, and, after a long and winding course, falls into the Ob in lat. 61°, about 600 versts below Tobolsk.

and is always well furnished with military stores. Within the walls are, the governor's palace, the courts of justice, a large cathedral, several churches, "fortunately no convents," and the palace of the archbishop.

The suburbs, which lie along the banks of the river, and are surrounded with a ditch and palisadoes, are occupied by the Tâtars, who enjoy the privileges of trade, and the exercise of their religion. In person, language, and manners, they resemble the Tâtars of Kazan and Astrakan. A considerable trade with China is still carried on here; but latterly, Irkutsk has become, from the superior advantages of its situation, a formidable rival. It has also lost much by the change of route, the caravans no longer using it as a halting place in their road to further Siberia. Its population is about 15,000. The climate is severe, but, in other respects, it is by no means so uncomfortable a place of abode as, from the latitude and country in which it lies, would naturally be supposed. Provisions are cheap and abundant; and, what is remarkable, the society is good, at least, gay and polite. Shops, theatres, and other places of public amusement, are numerous. There are also booksellers' shops, and French hotels, where may be had French wines, with English porter and beer.

The country immediately adjacent, preserves, Capt. Cochrane says, much of its natural wild magnificence, especially as it is seen from the residence of the governor. "In front are the noble Irtish and Tobol, joining their waters from the east and the south, and continuing their united course through the black and impenetrable forests, till lost in the verge of the horizon. The numerous pasture lands on the opposite banks of the river, with here and there a smoking

chimney, enliven the scene, and render the place, with all its surrounding but distant deserts, a really enviable retreat. Immediately under the eye are the river and lower town, with its regularly intersecting streets. All these afford ocular demonstration that Tobolsk is far from being a dull place. Yet, even in summer, the situation is very cold and bleak, being in the latitude of near 59°; and the thermometer, during the winter, at times falling as low as 40° or 42° of Reaumur; while, on the other hand, it is not always free from the opposite unpleasantness of extreme heat."

No convicts or malefactors are permitted to remain here, but only those who are banished from political causes. Provincial schools on the Lancasterian system are established here; and though they were in their infancy when Captain Cochrane visited them, nearly 1,000 boys attended them.

The soil of the province is chiefly marl and chalk, except in the north, which is covered with immense tracts of sand. From the nature of the soil and the dreariness of the climate, the timber is generally stunted in its growth. The population is estimated at one million; yet, so poor are they, that the net revenue received from this government does not exceed 150,000*l.* sterling. It extends from the latitude of 50° to the Frozen Sea, and nearly 1,000 miles from west to east. The northern districts are inhabited by Samoieds and Ostiaks, a wild, barbarous race, who live by fishing and hunting.

Western Siberia is said, on authority which is rather doubtful, to have been first discovered and conquered by a Cossack freebooter, of the name of Yermak, at the beginning of the sixteenth century. Obliged to flee from the country between the Don and the Volga,

on account of the ravages committed by his banditti, he led them, after various adventures, towards the north, and, having discovered and partially subdued Siberia, made his peace with Russia by giving information of the existence of this country. After seven years of constant warfare, he was surprised and defeated by the Tâtars, and perished with all his own troops, together with some that the Russian Government had sent him. For the time, the Russian empire in Siberia was abandoned; but it was not long before the court of Muscovy, taking advantage of the intestine commotions of the native princes, sent out another expedition, which soon recovered the territory of Tobolsk and Tara; and in the space of a century, the whole of Siberia, from Europe to the Eastern Océan, and from the Frozen Sea to the Chinese frontier, was subdued and annexed to that vast empire.

Whatever truth there may be in the adventures and conquests of Yermak, it is certain that the Cossacks of Siberia regard themselves as descended from his followers. Their present number is said to exceed 100,000; but of these, only 14,000 do military duty; the rest are engaged in various trades. The whole number of the Cossack male population in the Russian dominions is reckoned at half a million; and of these, about 200,000 are liable to be called on for military service.

Mr. Bell states, that, in all the road from Tobolsk to Tara, a distance of 500 versts, he met with only one Russian village; he passed, however, several Tâtar villages, which both this Traveller and Captain Cochrane represent as being neat, clean, and comfortable. Their white, plastered chimneys and ovens reminded the latter of those of his own country. The houses consist in general of one or two rooms.

Near the hearth is an iron kettle; and at one end of the apartment, a bench covered with mats or skins; on this, all the family sit by day, and sleep by night. They are particular in having clean bedding and many pillows. The walls are of wood and moss,—a layer of moss between every two beams. A square hole is cut out for a window; and to supply the want of glass, a piece of ice is often put in: two or three pieces will last the whole winter. They use no stoves. Near the house is commonly a shed for the cattle. The furniture consists of a few earthenware utensils and a set of tea-things.* They have neither chairs nor stools. The women never eat or drink till the men are done, and then seldom in their presence.

Tara, on the Irtish, is situated in a district abounding with wood, corn-fields, and fine pasturage. Mr. Bell found the air much milder here than at any place since he had left Kazan. Sixty versts from Tara, there is a Russian village, the last till we come to the river Ob. Three hundred miles South-east from Tobolsk is Omsk, at the junction of the Irtish and the Om. It consists of the citadel, the town, and suburbs; and contains a population of about 7,500. It was one of the strong places of the Tâtars, and there is always a strong garrison here; there is also a military college on the Lancasterian system, which is well conducted. The country round is quite flat, fertile, but not well cultivated. Opposite to the town is the territory of the Kirguis Tâtars, with whom and with the Calmucks to the South, the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in bartering tobacco, spirits,

* The richer peasants, we are told, drink tea morning and evening: this they procure from China, of a quality superior to any that is brought to England.

&c. for cattle. The Kirguis, though in some degree tributary to Russia, have their own khans. They are divided into three hordes, who wander over the country between Omsk and the Caspian Sea. Captain Cochrane thus describes two of the Kirguis chiefs, with whom he dined:—"Their appearance was handsome and manly; a long robe of blue cloth, beautifully embroidered, and fastened round the waist by a highly polished silver belt, from which was suspended a dagger, a knife, a pipe, and what in England might be termed a tinder-box; a shirt of coloured cotton, large Tâtar trowsers, and boots to correspond; a handsome fur cap, with a small black one under it to cover the clean-shaved head; a long beard, and bare neck. Their horses were well accoutred, and were managed with a long whip, which serves also for the driving of the cattle."

About eight days from Tobolsk, is Tomsk, on the right bank of the Toura, near its junction with the Ob, in latitude 56° 29′ 38″ North, and longitude 85° 9′ 51″ East. During May and June, it is subject to inundation from the river. There are some good streets, planked for the accommodation of foot-passengers. Its population is about 10,000, who carry on a brisk trade with the Calmucks, Ostiaks, and other tribes, for cattle, furs, &c. It is the capital of a province of the same name, containing a population of 500,000 souls, of whom about 80,000 pay taxes. Near Tomsk, terminates the great desert of Baraba,—a Tâtar word, signifying a marshy plain; it is full of lakes and marshy grounds, overgrown with birch, willow, and alder. Mr. Bell travelled over it for ten days. Its scanty population are poor and miserable. They are partly of the Mohammedan, partly of the Calmuck religion. A few rein-deer and fish consti-

tute their precarious and scanty food. Their dress consists of sheep skins; they are very dirty; and their huts are sunk about one-half under ground.

A country for the most part wild and uncultivated extends nearly the whole way from Tomsk to Irkutsk, the capital of Eastern Siberia, situated in latitude 52° 16′ 41″ N., and longitude 104° 11′ E. It stands in a plain, at the right bank of the Angara, at a point opposite to where the Irkut falls into that river. The public buildings are good, and the streets are wide; the houses are mostly of wood. The population amounts to 15,000, including the military. The commerce carried on here is very considerable, particularly in furs and Chinese commodities. The surrounding mountains abound in slate and coal; and the Baikal lake and the mines of Nertchinsk offer rich stores to the naturalist and mineralogist. The government of Irkutsk is very extensive; its breadth, from east to west, being 2,000 miles, while, from north to south, it stretches 1,500. The inhabitants amount to about 650,000, so that there is not more than one person to every four square miles. The number of convicts is estimated at from 10 to 12,000: the children of these become crown peasants.

The Baikal lake is 585 versts in length, and about 100 in width, extending from about the 51st to the 55th parallel of North latitude. The water is fresh and transparent, but of a green or sea tinge. It is usually frozen by the latter end of December, and not free from ice till May. It is at particular periods subject to violent storms, whence it is called by the Russians the testy sea. It contains many seals and abundance of fish, particularly a kind of herring. There are several small islands on the lake: in one of these there are sulphureous springs. The chief rivers flowing

into it are the Selinga from the south, and the higher Angara from the east. It is bounded on the north by a ridge of high rocks, which run from one end of it to the other. There is only one opening by which it discharges itself, which, though it is a natural passage, appears as if it were cut through the rocks by art. "In my opinion," says Mr. Bell, "one cannot imagine a more beautiful prospect of nature than is seen from the top of these mountains. The land on the south side of the lake, rises gradually till it terminates in hills mostly covered with wood. On the western shore, there are very high mountains, several of which are generally overspread with snow. The woods on the summit of the rocks to the north, are short and thinly scattered; but, on their declivity and in the valley, the trees become gradually both taller and larger. There is abundance of game and wild beasts in these woods, particularly the wild boar, which was the first of that species we found in that country,—a certain sign of a temperate climate." The climate on the southern side of the Baikal is much more temperate than on the northern side; and the soil is richer, producing rich crops of wheat and other grain. In the summer, this sea is crossed with some difficulty and danger, in consequence of the sudden changes of the wind; and the transports are not unfrequently twenty or thirty days in making the passage, though it is only about fifty miles. In winter, sledges drawn by horses are employed. Captain Cochrane was only two hours and a half in crossing. There is, however, some danger even in this mode, not only from the ice giving way at points that are imperfectly frozen, but also from the gusts of wind which sweep with irresistible violence along its surface. Besides the passage across the Baikal, there is another route to the East by land; but in this route, there occurs a very

steep and rugged mountain. The merchants, however, occasionally make use of this route for transporting their goods.

In pursuing his route to Kamtchatka, Captain Cochrane did not cross the Baikal, but proceeded down the Lena, in a canoe, paddled by himself, a Cossack, and two other persons. During one part of his route, he advanced 300 miles in four days, though the river was covered with floating ice; but, he says, there is nothing the hardy inhabitants will not do, and without murmuring. "Sometimes, the boat was so much entangled in the ice, that the poor fellows were compelled to strip and track her, up to their waists in water, while the atmosphere was at 5° of cold." At Jerbat, he passed the line which divides the Tongousians from the Yakuti. The former tribe, who are nearly all nomades, are in person small and rather delicate, their features regular and pleasing, though the peculiar elongation of their eyes, and their being set far apart, mark them as descended from the Mongul race. Their dress is like that of the Tâtars, except that it is better adapted to the climate. Their beds are made of bear-skins, or of those of the rein-deer; their blankets from the same animals, lined with the warmest fur, and in shape like a bag, so as completely to enclose the feet. Their general mode of living resembles that of all the other Siberian tribes.

As Captain Cochrane advanced into the country of the Yakuti, the villages became less frequent, and the distance between the stations was from 35 to 40 miles. In consequence of his boat being frozen in, he was obliged to perform the last part of his journey to Yakutsk by land. This place is situated on the west bank of the Lena, in a very bleak situation: it is a considerable place for trade, and a great thoroughfare for the Russian American Company. Its population

is about 7,000, of whom one-half are Russians. In the district of which it is the chief town, there are scattered over an immense extent of country, about 185,000 inhabitants, 50,000 of whom pay tribute, principally in furs. The Lena is navigable during its whole course, having no cataracts so great as to prevent the passage of vessels of considerable burden. It receives many great rivers, most of which come from the East; and is well stored with excellent fish.

From Yakutsk, Captain Cochrane proceeded in a north-eastern direction to Nishney Kolymsk, in the hope of being able to pass through the country of the Tchuktchi, and so to cross Behring's Straits for America. In this, however, he failed; whether from the suspicions or the avarice of the natives, does not clearly appear. "Nishney Kolymsk may be termed," says Captain Cochrane, "a large town in this part of the world, containing, as it does, nearly fifty dwellings and about 400 people, or eighty families; which is three times the number of any place between it and Yakutsk." It stands on the east side of an island in the Kolyma, about twenty-five miles long, and opposite to the mouth of the river Aniny; in lat. 68° 33′ N., long. 166° 30′ E. "The island is covered only with low brushwood, but receives fine timber which is floated down the river. No cultivation can of course be expected in a climate wherein scarcely a blade of grass is to be seen; the horses, which do sometimes tarry in its vicinity for a few days, feed upon the tops, stumps, and bark of the bushes, or upon the moss. The inhabitants manage, notwithstanding, with great labour to feed a couple of cows; though, to do this, they are obliged to bring the hay eighty miles. They are mostly Cossacks, with half a dozen pedlars, and three priests, the whole of whom carry on some traffic. The occupation of people in this part of the world,

naturally depends upon the season. Laying in wood for fuel, hunting, and trading, are the winter occupations; while fishing and fowling are almost the exclusive employment in spring and autumn: summer is generally the building time, the wood for which is floated down the Kolyma from Sredne Kolymsk. The women embroider gloves, caps, boots, shoes, and various things, in a neat manner. Further on, to the southward, they also attend to the breeding of cattle. Fishing may, however, be termed the grand concern, employing, as it does, alike men, women, children, and dogs."

The situation is far from salubrious: among the diseases to the ravages of which it is subject, Captain Cochrane mentions leprosy, apoplexy, and scurvy, and two anomalous diseases, called *diable au corps* and imerachism. The former is attended with incessant hiccoughs: the latter is a nervous affection, leading the imerach to imitate, while the fit is on, whatever action he sees. This part of the country was formerly highly productive in furs; but the elks, rein-deer, and wild sheep have retired to the extremities of Siberia, and are now rarely met with within the commissariat. The shores of the Icy Sea are still much frequented by the white, blue, and red fox; and near the woods, valuable sables are still to be met with; but the inhabitants look to the Tchuktchi for their winter clothing and most valuable furs. Game of the feathered kind is abundant; the inhabitants, however, "have neither the time nor the means to look after them."

At this place, Captain Cochrane met with Baron Wrangel, who had just returned from his expedition round Shelatskoi Noss; and he received from him the following information. The N.E. coast had, previously to his expedition, been ascertained, as far as Baranov Cape, situated in long. 169° E. In 1821,

Baron Wrangel surveyed the distance between this cape and Cape Kuzmin. The distance of ninety miles between Cape Kuzmin and Cape North, he was prevented from surveying at this time, for want of provisions; subsequently, however, he accomplished this task. Five expeditions were undertaken in the course of three years by this intrepid navigator. The object of three of these enterprises was, to cross the Frozen Ocean, but none of them succeeded. Some of the Tchuktchi, however, having reported to the Baron, the existence of land only fifty miles N.E. of Shelatskoi Noss, he proceeded thither, and thence directed his course north-east. He had not proceeded more than thirty miles, when a violent storm came on, and being destitute of provisions, he was obliged to return; not, however, before he had surveyed all the line from Shelatskoi Noss to the Bay of Klashomie and Serdze Kamen, and thus ascertained the exact boundaries of Asia in this quarter, and that it does not join America.

Captain Cochrane, not being permitted by the Tchuktschi to pass through their country, determined on making, by the shortest route, for Okotsk, in opposition to the remonstrances of his companions, who recommended, as the only safe and practicable measure, a previous return to Yakutsk. The difficulties and perils of the route were such as fully justified the advice he had received. What they were, may be seen from the following extract from his letter to the Governor-general of Siberia, accounting to him for departing from the original design of his travels:—

"From the river Kolyma, I had last the honour of addressing your excellency; since when, I have come over a large tract of desolate country, nearly two thousand miles, with great labour and some peril. The difficulties I have had to contend with, surpass

every thing of the kind I have before seen, and required every exertion of mine to conquer; which I did not do under seventy-five days of hard labour. My route lay along the Kolymra, Zyzanka, Indigirka, Omekon, and Okota; all of which are, at this season of the year, large, rapid, dangerous, and almost impassable rivers. Besides these, there are numerous other streams, as well as lofty mountains of frozen snow, large overflowed marshes, crowded and decayed forests, and half-frozen lakes, which present themselves in every part of this journey. Suffering at the same time cold, rain, hunger, and fatigue, with forty-five nights' exposure to the snow; at times without fire, in a frost of thirty degrees; and latterly, five days being passed without food; never having seen an individual during four hundred miles, and but one habitation in the extent of one thousand; being frequently bewildered and lost in the snow mountains:—all these circumstances tend to weary and dispirit a traveller upon a like journey, and render him incapable of addressing your excellency in a proper style. But I am unwilling to allow a post to escape without communicating my past and future movements. I was induced to undertake the late journey, in order that I might reach Okotsk in time to proceed to America or Kamtchatka, as circumstances should render most desirable or necessary: otherwise, the proper route from the Kolyma to Okotsk is viâ Yakutsk, the route of the Omekon having been discontinued thirty years, in consequence of the difficulties and perils which ever attend it."

Okotsk is situated in the north-east part of a bay of the sea of the same name, in latitude 59° 20′ 10″ N., long. 143° 13′ 45″ E. The population is about 1,500; they are principally occupied in ship-building and manufacturing salt. The country round is highly

productive of timber. The Russian American Company have an establishment here. From this place, our Traveller crossed the Sea of Okotsk to St. Peter and St. Paul's, in Kamtchatka. This peninsula, which is of an elliptical figure, forming the south-eastern extremity of Siberia, extends from the latitude of 51° to 59° N., and from 155° to 165° E. longitude. It is bounded, on the west, by the Sea of Okotsk; on the east and south, by the Pacific Ocean; on the north, by the country of the Koriaks. A chain of mountains, with numerous volcanic peaks, traverse its whole length from north to south. The only navigable river is the Kamtchatka, which, after a long course towards the north and north-east, falls into the Eastern Ocean, in lat. 56° 30′ N. It admits vessels of 100 tons 150 miles up. All the rivers abound in fish. There are also numerous lakes; so that, except when these are frozen, there is no intercourse between the several parts of the peninsula. It abounds in timber fit for ship-building; but corn and vegetables seldom come to perfection, in consequence of the severity of the climate, the soil at all seasons, at the depth of two or three feet, being frozen. The winter is long and severe; in spring and autumn there are heavy rains; the greatest heat is in July. The inhabitants depend for subsistence on fish, wild animals, and wild game, all of which are in great abundance; they likewise mix the bark of trees with wild or uncultivated vegetables. The natives are supposed to be a different race from the other inhabitants of Siberia: they are short, broad, with slender arms and legs, black hair, round face, high cheek bones, and sunken eyes. The whole population is supposed not to exceed 7 or 8,000. Epidemic disorders are very frequent, and commit great devastations among them. The number of real Kamtchatdales who retain their ancient usages,

is very small: they reside on the northern coast. The rest of the inhabitants are established in villages, built in the old Russian style. Formerly, the Kamtchatdales received their principal articles of commerce from the Japanese; but latterly, the Russians have supplied them with coarse cloth, knives, tobacco, sugar, iron, &c. in exchange for furs and skins. Kamtchatka is said to have been first discovered by a Cossack, in 1696; it was finally subdued by the Russians in 1711, but did not attract attention as a commercial station till subsequently to the discovery of the Aleutian, Beering, and Fox Islands. It is divided into four districts, and protected by a force of 500 men. The settlements of the Russians are few and small. St. Peter and St. Paul's, which is the chief, contains about thirty houses. It stands in lat. 53° 0′ 15″ N., and in 158° 4′ 9″ E. longitude.

At Okotsk, circumstances had occurred which determined Capt. Cochrane not to prosecute his journey beyond Kamtchatka. He returned to Europe by way of Irkutsk and Verchney Udinsk, "a large, populous, and flourishing city," situated on the right bank of the transparent Selenga, distant from Irkutsk 200 miles, and 70 miles above Selenginsk, upon the ruins of which it has risen. It has many handsome brick houses, churches, and public edifices, and the streets are laid out at right angles. This place is the grand mart between Irkutsk and Kiakhta, on the Chinese frontier, and carries on a lucrative trade with the Buriats, a numerous and wealthy Tâtar tribe. A strong garrison is kept up here, as it is considered as a frontier town. The situation is healthy, and the society good. The population is about 2,600. The banks of the river between this place and Selinginsk, are highly picturesque. They consist of immense mountains of porphyry, in which gold is said to be found.

From Verchney, Capt. Cochrane proceeded for forty miles along the banks of the river Uda (a tributary of the Selenga), and across the Buriat steppe, to Nertchinsk, distant from Verchney about 500 miles due East. This town, which is "vilely built, badly situated, and worse inhabited," stands at the confluence of the rivers Nertcha and Shilka, which here unite with the Amour: in lat. 51° 56′ N., long. 116° E. The surrounding country is bleak and bare, not affording even fire-wood. At this town, a treaty was signed in 1689, between the Russians and the Chinese. About the middle of that century, the Russians had advanced as far as this river; here they subdued some Tongusian chiefs, and began to erect fortresses. The Chinese having entertained similar designs, it became necessary to form some amicable arrangement, not, however, before hostilities had actively begun. By the treaty, the Russians not only lost an extensive territory, but also the navigation of the Amour, which would have been of great consequence to their remote possessions in Asia. In the year 1727, the limits between the Chinese and Russians were continued to the westward, and thus, the boundary was completed between the latter and the Monguls subject to China. No part of the Amour is within the limits of the Russian empire. It is remarkable, that this river is the only one between Kazan and these parts, that runs eastward: it falls into the Chinese Ocean. Most, if not all of the great rivers in Siberia, have their course to the north and north-west.

One hundred and eighty miles from Nertchinsk, is the *Bolshoy Zavod*, or Great Fabric. The intervening country is highly picturesque; and the soil so rich, that corn-villages are every where to be seen. The inhabitants occupying these villages, are all exiles of the upper sort. and yet, Capt. Cochrane remarks, are

as ill-looking a class of persons as he ever beheld. Nertchinsk reminded him forcibly of those pathetic descriptions of the mines of Siberia drawn by romantic writers: here their ideas are verified. The *Bolshoy Zavod* contains about 3,000 persons: the huts are miserable, the soil barren, and the climate extremely severe. The criminals are allowed only 36 rubles (equal to 27 shillings) annually, to procure them raiment, food, firing, and lodging; and yet, the winters are as severe as in any other part of Siberia. There are five silver-founderies besides that of Nertchinsk. The thirteen principal silver-mines produced formerly about one pound weight of silver for every 4,000 pounds weight of ore; the present proportion is one-third less: there are also lead-mines. The number of convicts employed to procure the silver, which does not exceed an average value annually of 25,000*l.*, is 2,458; but, besides these, there are nearly 18,000 male peasants attached to the founderies, and rather a greater number of females; so that, including all these, the persons released from labour, the officers employed to superintend and guard them, &c., Captain Cochrane calculates, that there are 48,027 individuals employed, and that the produce of each is not above 10*s.* 5*d.* per annum.

Our adventurous Pedestrian next resolved on a trip of 150 miles to Kiakhta and Maimatchin, on the Chinese line. The first twenty-five miles were over mountains; he then descended the steep banks of the Sclenga, and pursued his route up its course, halting at the missionary station at Selenginsk. Thence, passing through forty miles of dreary scenery, where only a few miserable villages are to be seen, he reached the point where the road leads off from the river through a more open and wooded country. The hills near Kiakhta rise in a commanding manner, and

spread out in various directions, forming beautiful, but unproductive valleys. "Every thing, in short," says our Traveller, "denotes a frontier situation; and something seemed to say, that here are the limits of two mighty empires."

Kiakhta is situated on a little brook of the same name, which serves as the boundary here between Russia and China. It stands in lat. 52° 56′ N., long. 105° E.; 4,200 miles from Moscow, and about 1,500 from Pekin. It is neatly and regularly built, containing 450 houses, with 4,000 inhabitants; a larger proportion to each dwelling, than is to be found, probably, in any other part of the Russian empire: no stone buildings are allowed to be erected, besides the church. The climate is deemed healthy, although the water is not good; that which is drunk by the wealthier inhabitants, comes from a distance of two miles, and fire-wood from a distance of twenty. The soil is so poor that vegetables are raised with difficulty. Beyond the fortress, and immediately opposite the Chinese town of Maimatchin, is Old Kiakhta, where only merchants reside, no officer or stranger being permitted to sleep in it, according to an article of the treaty between the two powers. It contains forty-five handsome dwellings, many of which have rich stores. The Chinese village, which is wholly unfortified, is about 200 fathoms from Old Kiakhta. It is a small, ill-built, mud town, with four narrow, unpaved streets; containing, during the fair, from 12 to 1,500 men and boys; no women being professedly allowed to live here. The fixed population is from 3 to 500 souls. The houses have no windows towards the streets; and altogether, the place reminded our Traveller of the old Moorish towns in the south of Spain, and along the northern coast of Africa. Both the streets and the houses were clean. Capt. Cochrane visited

the place in company with one of the most respectable merchants, which procured him an affable and hospitable reception. Tea, liqueurs, dried fruits, cakes, punch, and segars were immediately placed before their guest; and much interest seemed to be excited at finding an Englishman in this distant part of the celestial empire. The best understanding exists between the Russian and Chinese merchants. No ceremony is observed on either side, on entering each other's village; and entertainments are given alternately by each party: some of the Russian merchants of Kiakhta are believed to be immensely rich.

Captain Cochrane had before crossed the Russian frontier, at Malaya Narymka, in his way to Irkutsk, having diverged from his direct road, for the sake of gratifying himself by a harmless incursion on the celestial empire. An officer and a few men at that station, were all that were left to mark the boundaries of the two empires. "I forded," says our Traveller, "the little stream which forms the actual limit; and, seating myself on a stone on the left bank, was soon lost in a reverie. It was about midnight: the moon, apparently full, was near her meridian, and seemed to encourage a pensive inclination. What can surpass that scene, I know not: some of the loftiest granite mountains, spreading in various directions, enclosing some of the most luxurious valleys in the world; yet, all deserted! all this fair and fertile tract abandoned to wild beasts, merely to constitute a neutral territory!" The first Chinese settlement is 80 miles distant from Malaya.

Such is Russia, the Gog and Magog of the modern world, — that vast, heterogeneous empire which, stretching over more than a third of the circumference of the globe, and from the Arctic Sea southward beyond the latitude of Madrid or Rome, touches, on

one side, Sweden, Prussia, Austria, and Turkey; on the other side, Persia, China, and, by means of her colonies on the north-west coast of the New Continent, Mexico and the United States.* While, however, the vast aggregate strikes the imagination with its colossal bulk, the greater part of the Russian territory is but the waste land of the civilised world. This largest of empires is, in the scale of political greatness, one of the feeblest of nations.† It has gone on increasing in bulk, till it is incumbered with its own vastness. And, throughout its huge extent, the pulse of mind, the circulation of commercial or moral energy, is so feeble as scarcely to give the semblance of political life to its various parts. The great majority of the people are as yet but little removed from the uncivilised and brutish state in which they were left by the Ruriks and Vladimirs of other times. There are but two classes, the noble and the slave. The government is a despotism of a strictly oriental character, administered by a military police: the word of the emperor, if not his will, is law, for his will may be controlled by his vizier or his janissaries. The religion, literature, and commerce of Russia are all exotic. Her sacred language is Greek; her polite language, French; her vulgar language, a compound of Greek, Latin, German, French, and Slavonian. Her literati are Germans; her merchants, to a great extent British; her bravest officers, Poles or Cossacks. The Slavonic alphabet is said to have been first introduced in the ninth century. The oldest existing

* It has been computed that the superficial extent of the Russian empire is 920,000 square leagues, "being the ninth part of terra firma, and the twenty-eighth of the whole globe."

† With a population of fifty millions, and an extent of superficial territory forty-two times that of France, the revenue of Russia in 1817 was under 13,000,000*l.*; that of France nearly 37,000,000*l.*

written documents are two treaties with the Greek emperors of the tenth century. The first Russian Grammar was published in England towards the close of the seventeenth.* The oldest printed book is a Slavonic Psalter dated Kiev, 1551. Two years after, a press was established at Moscow; and the first paper which was used for it was manufactured in England. Such is Russia, a country most interesting, viewed as a political phenomenon, though destitute of all those features of historic or moral grandeur that give attraction to the countries which have been the scenes of the ancient monarchies. What Russia may become,—what she would be, if she had seamen as well as ships, commerce as well as extent of territory, and wealth as well as millions of slaves, it is not for us to predict. Commercial wealth and naval power are the two things wanting to make the semi-barbarous colossus as really formidable as it would gladly be thought. Muscovy has, indeed, been continually travelling southward; and it is well understood, that there exists a wish that its limits should protrude into the Mediterranean. Were this to be effected, Russia would soon cease to be Russia; for neither the Northern Palmyra nor the Tartarian Rome would long remain her capital.

* *Ludolfi Grammatica Russica.* Oxon. 1696.—See Bowring's Russian Anthology, p. xii.

THE END.

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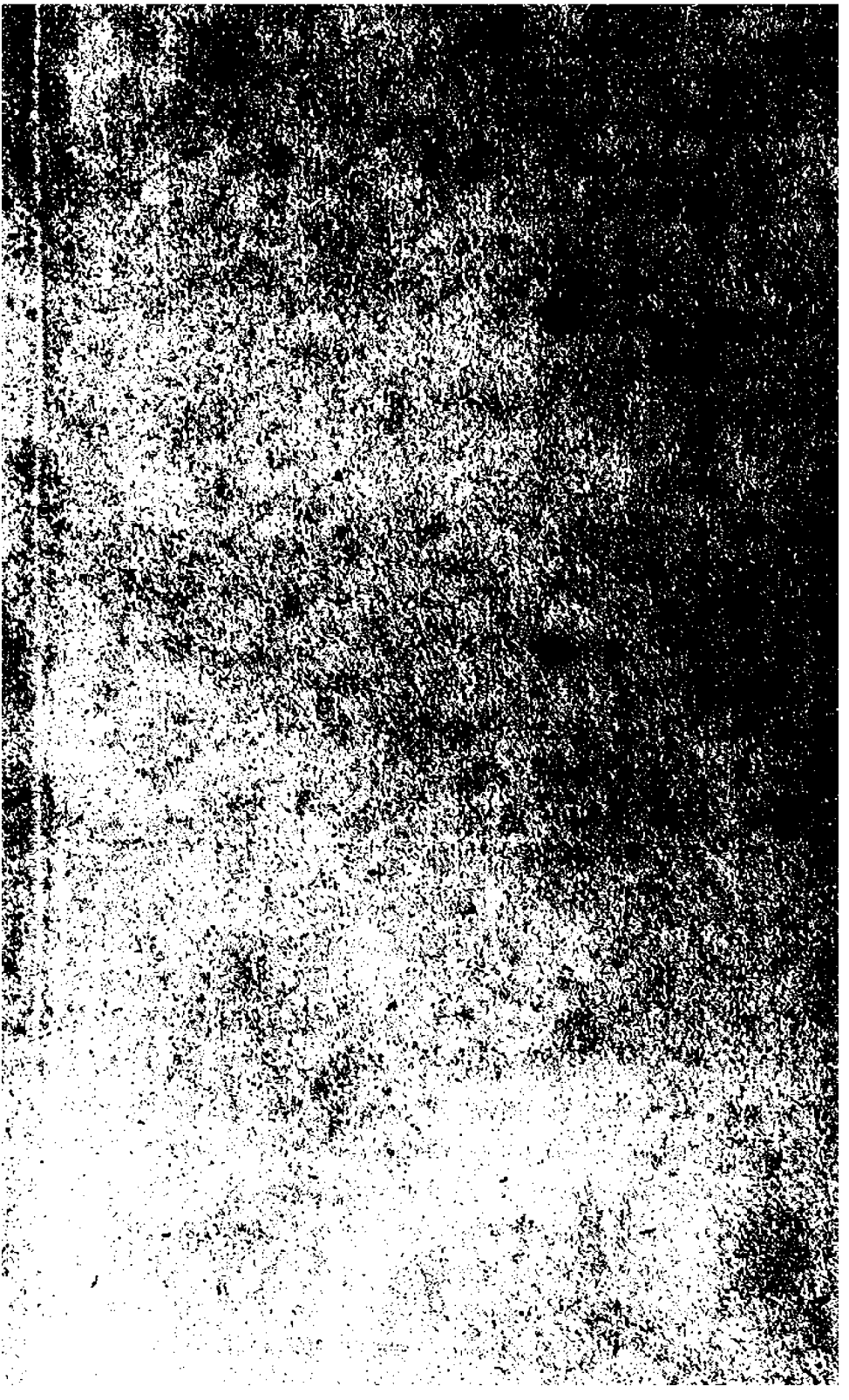

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THE

MODERN TRAVELLER.

A

DESCRIPTION,

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND TOPOGRAPHICAL,

OF THE

VARIOUS COUNTRIES OF THE GLOBE.

IN THIRTY VOLUMES.

By JOSIAH CONDER.

VOLUME THE EIGHTEENTH.

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THE

MODERN TRAVELLER,

ETC. ETC.

SPAIN.

A kingdom lying between lat. 43° 44′ and 35° 57′ N., and extending from long. 9° 13′ W. to 3° 15′ E.; bounded on the N. by France and the Bay of Biscay; on the E. and S. by the Mediterranean and the Gulf of Cadiz; on the W. by Portugal and the Atlantic.]

WITH the exception of Italy, Spain is the most interesting region in Christendom; the most fertile in romantic associations, the most remarkable in national character. Were there no other distinguishing circumstance in its records than the fact, that it has been twice, or rather thrice, almost completely in the military possession of foreign invaders, and yet, has ultimately triumphed over its enemies, this would give to its annals a peculiar attraction.

Spain been the debateable ground between Europe and Africa. Rome and Carthage contended for empire on its soil; and when the Saracens made their desperate effort for the possession of Christendom, Spain was one of the advanced positions on which they seized. The claim of succession to its crown has

arrayed contending armies from England, Germany, and France, on the Spanish territory; and of the eventful history of the last five and twenty years, the most extraordinary and interesting portion is that which relates to the Peninsular war.

The authentic annals of Spain* date from its consolidation into a Roman province under the first imperial Cæsar. This was for a long time adopted by Spanish writers as their historic era, being thirty-five years earlier than that which is vulgarly assigned to the birth of our Lord. In Aragon, this continued to be in use till the year 1358; in Castile, twenty-five years later; and in Portugal, so late as 1415. The earliest known division of Spain, was into *Citerior* and *Ulterior*, Hither and Further Spain, in reference to the Iberian chain; but, soon after this, we find it divided by Roman writers into three provinces, Lusitania, Hispania Bætica, and Hispania Tarraconensis. Lusitania, bounded on the north by the Douro, on the south by the Guadiana, and having for its eastern limit, a line drawn from Simancas to Puente del Arzobispo, included the whole of Portugal and Algarve, with the kingdom of Leon and part of Estremadura. Bætica (so named from the river Bætis, the Guadalquiver,) had the Guadiana for its northern and western boundary, and for its eastern limit, a line drawn from *Murgis* or *Muxacra*, a village near the ancient pro-

* The various derivations assigned to the name of the country, shew that nothing certain is known respecting its etymology. Thus, one ancient geographer deduces it from a King Hispanus; another from the city Hispalis (Seville), the ancient capital; a third from σπανια, *scarcity*, in supposed allusion to its sterility; and a fourth finds its origin in the Hebrew! The country received from the Greeks the appellations of Iberia (from the river Iberus or Ebro) and Hesperia, or the west country.

montory of *Charidemus*, now called *Cabo de Gata*, to the territory of *Castulo*, which was nearly in the same situation as the modern Cazlona. It answered pretty nearly to what is now called Andalusia, comprising the kingdoms of Seville, Jaen, Cordova, and Granada, but included also a part of modern Estremadura. Hispania Tarraconensis, which received its name from the town of Tarraco (the modern Tarragona), comprehended all the hither or eastern part of Spain, answering generally to Catalonia and the kingdom of Aragon. Under the latter Roman emperors, some alterations were made in this division, and it was afterwards totally obliterated by the desolating invasions of the country by the northern nations. The modern division of Spain results from the successive formation of distinct and independent kingdoms and principalities, on the expulsion of the Moors, between the middle of the eighth century and the end of the fifteenth. The Asturian monarchy was the germ of the Spanish greatness. The small province which it comprised, was at one time the only portion of the country unconquered by the Moors. At length, towards the close of the fifteenth century, by the marriage of Ferdinand, the fifth king of Aragon, with Isabella of Castile, the crowns of Asturias, Leon, Castile, Aragon, and Granada were united.

The modern division of Spain distributes it into fourteen provinces or captain-generalships, which for the most part retain the names of kingdoms, and are in fact distinguished from each other by a striking variety of national character, as well as by a material difference in their internal government. These again have their subdivisions. According to a census made by royal authority in 1787-8, their names and respective population are as follow:

		Souls.	Souls.	Extent in Square Miles.
Biscay	Alava	71,399	308,157	3,001
	Guipuzcoa	120,716		
	Lordship of Biscay	116,042		
Kingdom of Aragon			623,308	14,832
Principality of Catalonia			814,412	12,111
Asturias			347,776	3,725
Kingdom of Leon	Jurisdiction of Leon	250,134	665,432	12,420
	——— Palencia	112,514		
	——— Salamanca	210,380		
	——— Toro	92,404		
Kingdom of Galicia			1,345,803	16,060
Estremadura			416,992	14,473
Andalusia	Kingdom of Seville	754,293	1,837,024	27,542
	——— Cordova	236,016		
	——— Granada	661,661		
	——— Jaen	177,136		
	Sierra Morena	7,918		
Kingdom of Murcia			337,686	7,957
——— Valencia			783,084	7,764
——— Navarre			227,322	2,475
La Mancha			206,160	7,020
New Castile	Jurisdiction of Cuença	266,182	933,865	23,573
	——— Guadalaxara	144,370		
	——— Toledo	334,425		
	City of Madrid	156,672		
	Province of Madrid	58,943		
	Royal demesnes of Aranjuez and Le Pardo	3,266		
Old Castile	Jurisdiction of Avila	115,172	1,196,964	21,114
	——— Burgos	465,410		
	——— Old Castile	74,669		
	——— Segovia	167,525		
	——— Soria	170,565		
	——— Valladolid	196,839		
	Royal demesnes of St. Ildefonso and the Escurial	6,784		
			10,143,975	176,497

Of these, it was estimated that 478,716, or not quite a 20th, were *nobles*; *276,090 servants*; and

131,747, or nearly an 80th part, ecclesiastics; that is, upwards of 60,000 seculars, above 49,000 monks, (two-fifths were Franciscans,) and 22,300 nuns. The parishes are stated at 20,080; the convents at 3,094. The proportion of inhabitants to the square league is, in Guipuzcoa, as high as 167; in Cuença, as low as 25: in the inland provinces, the average is 42; in the maritime provinces, 75. Since the time that this census was taken, the proportion is supposed to have increased. In 1799, it was ascertained to exceed 12,000,000; the increase appearing to have taken place chiefly in the kingdom of Aragon. According to a statement published at Madrid in 1802, and cited by Laborde, the adult population* was estimated at not quite 10,500,000, and the proportion of males and females was supposed to be equal. The married persons were estimated at not quite 4,000,000; and allowing 4,000,000 only for children, this would carry the population to between 14 and 15,000,000. Hassel, in his "*Statistique Européene*," estimates the territorial surface at 25,145 square leagues of 25 to a degree, and the total population at 10,730,000, being 425 inhabitants to every square league; and this in a country supposed to be capable of furnishing subsistence for 78,000,000, and which, according to the general opinion, actually contained, under the Romans, 40,000,000 of people.†

* Laborde is evidently inaccurate in mistaking this for an estimate of the whole population: the men are stated at 5,204,187; the women at 5,205,692; and out of these, it is supposed that there were 3,890,660 married persons.

† Laborde is disposed to reduce this estimate one half, viz. to 20 millions, though some ancient authorities carry the population of Spain under the Romans, as high as 52 millions. At the close of the fourteenth century, according to several Spanish writers, (whose statements, however, Laborde deems exaggerated,) the population was 21,700,800; viz. Castile, 11,000,000; Aragon,

Since the commencement of the Peninsular war, the decrease in the population must have been considerable. It is impossible to arrive at any satisfactory estimate; but the present population can hardly be rated higher than 12,000,000.

Besides this general division of Spain, there are other demarcations which have respect to the military, ecclesiastical, and financial departments. There are, according to Laborde, eleven grand military districts; viz. Old Castile, Aragon, Catalonia, Valencia and Murcia, Navarre, which is termed a vice-royalty, Guipuzcoa, Andalusia, the coast of Granada, Galicia, Estremadura, and Madrid. The three naval depôts, or stations, Cadiz, Ferrol, and Cartagena, also constitute distinct governments. Laborde speaks of another subdivision of the country into six departments and thirty provinces; "but this new organization," it is added, "has been carried into effect principally in Castile and Leon." The ecclesiastical provinces are eight in number, viz. Toledo or New Castile, Seville, Santiago de Compostella in Galicia, Granada, Burgos, Tarragona, Saragossa in Aragon, and Valencia. The suffragan bishoprics are forty-four. There are seven royal audiences, or superior courts of judicature, the seats of which are at Corunna, Seville, Oviedo, Saragossa, Valencia, Barcelona, and Cacerez; also, two royal chanceries, which are courts of still higher authority, — one at Valladolid, comprehending within its jurisdiction all the territory beyond the right bank of the Tagus, and one at Granada, including all the

7,700,000; Granada, 3,000,800. In the sixteenth century, under Ferdinand and Isabella, it was estimated at 20,000,000. In 1688, it did not amount to 12,000,000. In 1700, it had sunk to 8,000,000, and only fifteen years later, under Philip V., to 6,000,000! Since then, it has been very slowly increasing.

country on the left. Navarre retains, among other ancient privileges, an independent royal council. But the supreme judicial tribunal is the royal council of Castile, which holds its sittings at Madrid. The tribunals of exception, however, which withdraw both persons and property from the jurisdiction of ordinary tribunals, are so numerous, that at least half the business of the kingdom is independent of the ordinary judges. At the head of these, are the fifteen courts of the Inquisition. Further details will occur in describing the provincial peculiarities. It will now be requisite to take a brief survey of the physical aspect of the country.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE Spanish peninsula, lying between Europe and Africa, and partaking of the climate of both, may be considered as occupying a geographical position peculiarly advantageous, as respects both the facility of intercourse with other nations, and the means of internal defence. Situated between two seas which spread its commerce into every part, it collected on either hand, in the time of its maritime greatness, the wealth of both Indies; while, on the only side on which it is accessible to foreign invasion, the Pyrenees present a formidable, though it has not proved an insuperable barrier. Its greatest longitudinal extent, from Cape Finisterre to Cape Creus, is 650 miles; its breadth, from Cape Ortegal to Gibraltar, 550. Exclusive of Portugal, its superficial extent may be stated in round numbers at 176,500 square miles. No European country, except Switzerland, is so mountainous. Besides the great Cantabrian chain which connects with the Pyrenees, and extends along the shores of the Bay of Biscay to Cape Finisterre, a lon-

gitudinal range, sometimes called the Iberian mountains, runs across the peninsula, in an irregular line, from north to south, terminating at Cabo de Gata, on the coast of Granada: from this range, four other chains diverge, extending westward to the Atlantic. These mountains, though differing in their geological character,* may be considered as one connected groupe. They are thus described by Laborde.

"The first chain that we perceive on leaving Cape Finisterre, stretches along the whole of the north of Spain, and joins the Pyrenees. In this are the sources of the Miño and the Duero, which empty themselves into the Atlantic, and of the Ebro, the course of which is towards the Mediterranean. These mountains, advancing towards the south-east, divide the streams which flow into the Ebro, from those which flow into the Duero. On one side, they form the outline of Aragon, and on the other, that of Old Castile. They advance thus as far as Cuença and Molina, the names of which they take; and soon after, give rise to the Tagus on the right, and the Xucar and the Guadalaviar on the left. Here we find the *nucleus*, as we may call it, or knot of the whole chain, Mount Cayo, which seems to be the reservoir of all the waters that rise in springs round this point, and take their course towards the two seas. This same chain, still advancing towards the south, forms a mass, whence the Guadiana flows, and, further on, the Guadalquivir; finally terminating at the Cabo de Gata. The rivers which rise within this chain,

* The mountains surrounding Toledo, and those between Piera and Igualada, in Catalonia, are of granite; but the prevailing formation is limestone. Gypsum abounds in several provinces. The mountain of Filabra near Almeria, is said to be entirely composed of a pure white statuary marble. Granada, in particular, contains many valuable varieties of marble.

divide it into so many large valleys and intermediate plains, yet, leaving in the intervals considerable ramifications, all of which are attached to the principal trunk. As the rivers flow in parallels towards the ocean, so, the mountains which overhang and swell them with their waters, run in parallel ridges from the mountains of the Asturias in the north, to those of the Alpuxarras in the south. Thus, the mountains of St. Andero, which join the Pyrenees, run along between the Duero and the sea. The mountains of Guadarrama, which separate Old from New Castile, run between the Tagus and the Duero. Another chain, which divides New Castile from the plains of La Mancha, runs from the north-east to the south-west, between the Tagus and the Guadiana: in this chain we find the *Sierra de Guadalupe*. On the other side of the Guadiana is the famous *Sierra Morena*, from which we descend into the beautiful plains of Andalusia, watered by the Guadalquivir, and overlooked by the last chain of mountains in Spain, the Alpuxarras, which extend to the coast.

"The direction of the mountains and rivers of this country sufficiently points out what are its natural lines of defence. Setting out from the defiles of *Pancorvo*, four barriers shut up the avenues of Spain from north to south; and these long retarded the progress of the Christians against the Moors. The mountains of Spain are almost all calcareous; and no traces are to be seen in them of volcanoes. Though from the north-east, the country gradually becomes lower, yet, the high plain or table land of the Castiles has an elevation of 300 fathoms. The mean height of the barometer at Madrid, shews that capital to be elevated $309\frac{3}{5}$ fathoms above the level of the

ocean.* Madrid, consequently, stands as high as the town of Inspruck, which is situated in one of the highest defiles of the Tyrol. The elevation of Madrid is fifteen times greater than that of Paris, three times greater than that of Mount Valerian, and also three times greater than that of Geneva. According to Mr. Thalacker, the mineralogist, that of the king's palace at St. Ildefonso, in the environs of Madrid, is 593 fathoms, which is higher than the edge of the crater of Mount Vesuvius. No other monarch in the world is possessed of a palace in the region of the clouds !†

"The height of the plain of the Castiles has an effect on its temperature. We are astonished at not finding oranges ripen in the open air under the fortieth parallel of latitude; the same as that of Tarentum, part of Calabria, Thessaly, and Asia Minor. The mean temperature‡ of Madrid appears to be 59° of Fahrenheit; while that of St. Petersburgh is 39° 52′ 30″; that of Berlin 46° 57′ 30″; that of Paris 53° 56′ 30″; that of Naples 63° 30′; and that of the countries situated under the equator, on the level of the ocean, from 79° to 81°. Genoa is 4° further north than Madrid; and yet, the temperature of Genoa raises the glass almost 2° higher than that of the capital of Spain.

"European Spain, situated in a latitude under which

* Recueil d'Observations Astronomiques, par M. Humboldt, p. 18.

† In France, the heavy summer clouds are from 550 to 600 fathoms high.

‡ Naturalists find the mean temperature of the year, by adding together all the heights of the thermometer observed in the course of the year, and dividing the total by the number of observations. The mean heat of a place in the temperate zone, may differ sensibly, therefore, from the medium taken between the maximum and the minimum.

palm-trees flourish upon the plains, presents the majestic spectacle of a chain of mountains, the summits of which shoot up into the regions of perpetual snow. Don Clemente Roxas has ascertained, that, in the *Sierra Nevada* of Granada, the *Pico de Veneta* is elevated 1781 fathoms, and the *Mulahacen*, 1824 fathoms above the level of the sea. None of the mountains of the Pyrenees are of so great a height. *Mont Perdu*, the highest ridge of the Spanish Pyrenees, is only 1763 fathoms; and the highest of the French Pyrenees is only 1722. The peak of *Mulahacen* in the *Sierra Nevada* of Granada, is only 76 fathoms lower than the peak of Teneriffe. Yet, even this summit, if situated in the same latitude as the town of Mexico, would not be perpetually covered with snow; for the never-melting snows begin, under the equator, at the elevation of 2460 fathoms; under the 20th parallel of latitude, at 2350 fathoms; under lat. 45°, at 1300; and under lat. 62°, at 900 fathoms; so great is the effect of the depression of the curve from the equator to the poles."*

NATURAL HISTORY.

THE soil of Spain is for the most part highly productive. Grain was anciently exported from this country; and under the Moors, agriculture was in a very flourishing state; but it has been on the decline ever since their expulsion at the beginning of the seventeenth century. Scarcely two-thirds of the country are now under cultivation.† A traveller may

* Laborde's View of Spain, vol. i. p. clx.—clxxiv.

† "Waste lands are numerous in Aragon and Murcia, and they are equally so in New Castile, viz. between the frontiers of Aragon and Torrija; between the Bravo and the river Alberche; between the confines of Valencia and Aranjuez; between Aranjuez and

pass over six, eight, or ten leagues, without meeting with the smallest trace of culture; and the cultivated lands present, with a few exceptions, a languid system of slovenly husbandry. One principal cause of this, is the monopoly of the soil by the grandees and the convents. "The lands," says Laborde, "for three, six, eight, twelve, and fifteen leagues in extent, often belong to one owner: the nobility and the clergy possess nearly the whole. The third part of Spain is held by the houses of Medina Celi, Alba, l'Infantado, Aceda, and some few other grandees; the archbishops and bishops; the chapters of Toledo, Compostella, Valencia, Seville, Murcia, &c.; and a few of the religious orders, particularly the Benedictines and Jeronomites. The major part of these lands is pasture. It is not, therefore, the uniting of so many of these domains under a small number of proprietors, that appears to be so objectionable; but it is the consequent improper management of the lands they include, and the deficiency of establishments for their profitable culture. The *cortijos*, or farms, usually comprise twice as much land as can well be cultivated under the management of one master; and the time occupied in taking the ploughs to the fields, amounts to a moiety of what should be devoted to the labour of tillage. On the other hand, the proprietors do not overlook their

Toledo, towards Alarcon, &c. So also in Seville, beyond Ecija, between Algesiras and Chiclana, and between Seville and Cantillana: in a space of five leagues in the territory of Utrera, there are 21,000 fanegas. Thirty thousand may be enumerated in the territory of Ciudad Rodrigo, belonging to the kingdom of Leon; and still more in that of Salamanca. Estremadura abounds with wastes; and in Zavala alone, in the district of Badajoz, there is an extent of twenty-six leagues in length by twelve in breadth."—LABORDE, vol. iv. p. 34.

servants in husbandry, but live in the cities, leaving to subalterns the management of their estates, while the manorial houses are suffered to dilapidate. Their woods disappear by the destructive axes of their agents; the lands are but half cultivated for want of hands; labourers from other parts receive no encouragement to come and settle, for lack of the means of subsistence; and the few villages which are inhabited, are rapidly hastening to decay."

Other causes of the depression of agriculture are adverted to in the following paragraphs. "The heat of the climate will not permit persons to work in the open fields for a long time together. The Spanish labourer takes his *siesta*, and smokes his *cigarro*, during which intervals his work ceases. The multiplicity of feasts lessens the number of working days. It is true, that the former have been virtually much abridged; but then persons are obliged on such days to attend mass, and this occasions much loss of time, especially to such labourers as are occupied at a distance from a church. Many also entertain scruples of conscience respecting the working on such holidays, though they have been suppressed. The diocese of Toledo still retains forty-one feast-days, which, added to fifty-two Sundays, make the sum of eighty-three days; leaving only two hundred and sixty-two for the purposes of labour, even supposing the peasants to labour on those holidays which have been suppressed. The days dedicated to the titular saints of particular parishes, the patron saints of private families, and the guardian saints of individuals, are so many other feasts on which labour is temporarily suspended. It may be said of these festivals, as well as of the pilgrimages to a multitude of hermitages and isolated chapels, that some are observed

for the sake of vows, some for devotion, some through custom, and by far the greatest number for the pleasure of rambling.*

"The difficulties attending the transporting of heavy articles, impedes the progress of agriculture. The roads in Spain were formerly almost impassable; carriage was extremely difficult, and could only be performed on the backs of horses, asses, or mules, which was both tedious and expensive. Some years ago, excellent roads were made throughout the kingdom; but the Spaniards have not been induced to become more industrious, nor to forego their ancient customs. Scarcely any waggons are employed, and Catalonia and the kingdom of Valencia are almost the only provinces in which carts have come into general use. The difficulty attending carriage, renders the conveyance of provisions to a market expensive, and while it diminishes their value to the grower, advances the price to the buyer; thus does it operate to the discouragement of agriculture. This remark should be understood principally as applying to the central provinces, which have fewer communications than the rest.

"The uncertainty of a market for commodities is another obstacle. The Government is frequently changing the laws respecting exportation. It was

* "The Count de Capomanez states the sum lost every feast-day, by the suspension of labour, at six millions of reals, or four millions of livres tournois. He here comprehends the persons employed in trade and manufacture, as well as those occupied in agriculture. If, as Dr. Adam Smith has proved, labour, in a national point of view, constitutes wealth, what a prodigious loss does Spain annually experience by the effects of a blind superstition! Taking the livre at 10*d.* English, then 4,000,000 livres are equal to 166,666*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* the loss of one day. Allowing the number of feast-days thus retained to be forty-one in the year, the annual deficiency will amount to 6,833,333*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*!"

permitted in the year 1765; prohibited in 1769; and again allowed in 1783. These variations render the spirit of agriculturists timid and wavering."

Most of the evils, in fact, under which this fine country labours, and by which it has been depopulated, are to be traced to the imbecility and wickedness of its wretched government.

The chief productions of Spain are, wheat, barley, maize, rice, flax, hemp, the sugar-cane, madder, barilla, saffron, and almost all kinds of fruits. Andalusia is the granary of Spain. Leon and Old Castile are almost equally productive. Barley is cultivated in every part, but especially in Granada, Seville, Old Castile, and Murcia. Valencia produces chiefly maize and rice; the sugar-cane is also cultivated here with success, and a little cotton. The olive flourishes in almost every part of Spain, as does the vine; but the eastern and southern provinces yield the finest grapes. Catalonia is exceedingly rich in forest plantations, to which, of late years, the Spaniards have turned their attention. The mountainous districts of this province are covered with the beech, the pine, the evergreen oak, and the cork-tree; the chestnut and hazel-nut grow on the sides of the hills and in the valleys. Elms and willows fringe the margins of the rivers, and all sorts of fruit-trees flourish in the plains. The mountains of Biscay, though thinned, in many parts, of their once impenetrable woods, still exhibit extensive forests. A quantity of cider is made in Asturias, where the apple-tree abounds. Woods of ash, elm, white poplar, mulberry-tree, carob-tree, and different varieties of oak,* occur in other districts. The pine and the yew

* *Quercus ilex*, or evergreen oak; *quercus suber*, or cork-tree;

clothe some of the *sierras;* and in some parts of Valencia, there are forests of palm-trees, which constitute the principal wealth of the country. The two Castiles and La Mancha are almost entirely bare of timber.

The animal kingdom in Spain presents nothing remarkable. The birds, quadrupeds, reptiles, and insects are the same as are found in the southern provinces of France. The breed of Spanish horses was famous in the time of the Romans, and the wools of Bætica and Cantabria were held in high esteem.

Spain was formerly celebrated for its mineral treasures; but, since the discovery of America, its mines have been neglected, and now produce but little. Gold, silver, copper, lead, iron, antimony, cobalt, cinnabar, plumbago, sulphur, and (it is said) coal,—also, amethysts, agate, chalcedony, and garnets are found in different parts of the country. Mineral springs are very numerous.

"In what country," exclaims M. Laborde, "will those who employ themselves in natural history find more interesting objects? Three-fourths of the mountains in Spain are composed of admirable marble and alabaster. In Catalonia alone, there are 177 different kinds, without including the jasper of Tortosa. The green marble of Granada, and the flesh-coloured, have a brilliancy to the eye, and a fineness to the touch, which rank them with the most beautiful oriental substances. Several of the provinces of Spain are still enriched with mines of gold and silver, red lead, and

quercus coccifera, or kermes oak. In the two Castiles, Estremadura, and Andalusia, the acorn of the ilex is eaten; and, according to Laborde, is considered as a delicacy. He says, they call them *bellotas*, and eat them either raw or roasted.

quicksilver. A Flora and a Herbal of this kingdom are desiderata, and no other country would afford richer materials.

" Those who take interest in the fine arts, historical recollections, and the monuments of antiquity, may, in Spain, walk over the ruins of Saguntum, Numantia, Tarragona, and Merida,—the theatre of the campaigns of Hannibal, the Scipios, and the unfortunate sons of Pompey: they may repose in the shade of the ancient cypresses of the fountain of Sértorius, and read the name of *Optimus* in the inscriptions, in the native country of Trajan and Adrian. But the monuments which the Roman people left profusely in every part of the empire, are not the only ones in Spain. A people less powerful, though equally celebrated, less known, though as worthy of being so, have left in this country, perhaps, the only monuments which exist of them in the world. The Arabs spent ages in embroidering, if I may use the expression, the walls of Granada and Cordova, and in completely clothing them with an assemblage of ornaments, the grace and lightness of the details of which, are equal to the grandeur of the masses. While those voluptuous people ornamented in this manner the baths and retired cabinets of their seraglios in the south, the Goths raised the dark and austere monuments of their religion in the north. Forests of columns supporting pointed roofs, lighted by windows stained with glaring colours, immense iron gates, loaded with carved ornaments, and marble mausoleums, casting long shadows upon funeral inscriptions, present another kind of monument, more solemn and more historical. At last, the era of the revival of the arts in the age of the Medicis commenced in the reign of Charles V.; and it

may be supposed that Spain, which at that period was superior to the rest of Europe, was not inferior to it in this kind of glory. In fine, persons who delight in the knowledge of politics, laws, and customs, will find in Spain a primitive people, whose character retains all its purity. Half of this beautiful country still lies fallow, but the other half proves what it might be made. All its productions are of a remarkable quality: the corn loses only five parts in a hundred in grinding, while every where else it loses fifteen. The olives are twice as large as those of Provence, and would produce as good an oil, if the people knew well how to make it. The wines of Malaga, Xeres, and Alicant are sufficiently known. The wools have long excited the admiration and jealousy of neighbouring nations. It is in Spain only that we meet with forests of palm-trees without crossing the desert, and plantations of sugar-canes without seeing slavery."

Unhappily, the drawbacks which this Writer enumerates—bad roads, bad inns, high prices, and scanty fare—are not the only ones which now oppose the progress of the traveller in this interesting country.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS OF THE SPANIARDS.

BEFORE entering on the topographical description of the peninsula, as far as we are made acquainted with it by modern travellers, it may not be unacceptable to the reader, to have presented to him a brief general sketch of the character and manners of the natives. This is the more necessary, as the Spaniards are a people far less generally known than the inhabitants of any other country in Europe. There are peculiarities of character and customs which nothing

but a long residence in the country, and a familiar intercourse with the natives, can furnish a foreigner with the opportunity of observing.

It is a common mistake, to judge of a people by the conduct of its political and ecclesiastical government. The picture of the Spaniard drawn by most European travellers, is but a caricature, in which his best features are either distorted or rendered not discernible. He has been represented as at once intolerant, indolent, ignorant, and superstitious, and not more a slave in his political circumstances, than in his disposition. Such is the odious light in which he has constantly been exhibited by those who have caught but a passing glimpse of him, in their impatience to escape from his country, where so few comforts for travellers are found. But, to judge of him rightly, we must separate him from his government, and from that intolerant hierarchy which has been fatally intrusted with civil power and the sword of justice; and if, in spite of these two baneful influences acting upon the national character for so many ages, the Spaniard should be found not quite the degraded slave and bigot that he has been supposed to be, the unmerited contempt which we are apt to entertain for his character, may not only abate, but, perhaps, may even be changed into admiration.

The truth is, how much soever the assertion may sound like a paradox, that the Spaniards are less influenced in their habits, and even their political opinions, by their government, than any other people in existence. To how great an extent their natural good sense and noble feelings have withstood the baneful influence of the intolerant inquisitorial jurisdiction established in their country, will be noticed hereafter.

They have, indeed, been uniformly submissive, on principle, to the acknowledged authorities; but, at the same time, they have never been blind to the errors, the fopperies, and the profligate manners of the court. In other countries, we see the fashions and morals of the court transmitted downwards, from the royal palace to the humblest cottage; but in Spain, no such result has been observable, at least since the accession of the Bourbon dynasty. In illustration of this, may be instanced their strong attachment to the national costume. Every province has its own peculiar dress, a dress which has remained invariably the same for ages, notwithstanding that, from the time of Philip V., the French modes have been the prevalent ones at court. This singular attachment to costume were in itself scarcely worth the noticing, did it not evince a patriotic spirit, universally felt and acted upon. The following anecdote, given by an eye-witness, will shew how far a feeling of this kind may have a political bearing:—

It is a whimsical practice in many parts of Spain, after the passion-service on Saturday in Holy Week is ended, to burn in some public place, the effigy of Judas Iscariot. When the nation happens to be at war with any power, Judas is exhibited in the garb of the enemy. Like our Guy Faux, he is shewn suspended to a stake, but with this difference, that he is generally stuffed with combustibles: on the application of a match, his entrails gush forth in spiral volumes of flame, and his whole frame is finally exploded to atoms. "I witnessed this exhibition," says the narrator, "at Valladolid, in 1796, after the Spanish Government had concluded peace with France, and declared war against England. I expected, therefore, to see Judas exhibited in the dress of an Englishman, when,

to the universal satisfaction of the applauding multitude, he popped forth a complete modish French fop, with his *citoyen*, as they called it, or *surtout*, reaching down to his heels, his hair *à la Brutus*, that is, cropped behind and bushy at top, his red cravat *à la guillotine*, and every other attribute of a revolutionary nonpareil. The merry circumstance, however, was nearly terminating in a serious affray; for, one of the by-standers pointing at some of the students, who had already adopted this outlandish dress, and calling out, *Mira a los hermanos de Judas!* 'Look at Judas's brothers!'—the insulted party rushed upon him; the people defended him, and some blows were exchanged; but the police interfering, succeeded at last in quelling the riot. The French fashion was thus literally exploded, and that not only in Valladolid, but, as if by previous concert, in numberless other places; no one venturing ever after to appear in a dress thus become the object of universal contempt and derision."

In proof that this people think for themselves, in opposition to court measures and state policy, we might mention the general dissatisfaction which was evinced at that period, at the peace made with France, and the war declared against England. It was then a current saying, and became quite proverbial:—*Con todo el mundo guerra, y paz con Ynglaterra*: "War with all the world, but peace with England." Numberless pasquinades were every where posted up in Madrid, often on the very walls of the royal palace, ridiculing the impolitic measures of government, and pointing out in satirical terms, the losses incurred, and the misfortunes entailed upon the nation.* Even the lewd and

* After the defeat of the Spanish fleet by Admiral Jervis, off Cape St. Vincent, in 1796, which the Madrid Gazette—the only journal then published in the kingdom—took no notice of for

scandalous conduct of the Spanish queen escaped not the public, any more than the private censure and animadversion of the community.* Much had the usurper Joseph to endure from this species of witty

some time, the following pasquinade, question and answer, was seen in large characters, posted over the very gates of the palace:—

" Que navios han llegado?—Los que el Ynglés ha dexado.

Pregunto: quantos han venido?—Los que el Ynglés ha querido.

Se saven de ellos los nombres?—Ya, muy bien lo saven en Londres.

Conque a hora havra promocion?—En honra de la nacion.

Que haran de los oficiales?—Por lo menos generales.

Se pagaran los marineros?—Quando hayga mas dineros.

Y los mancos? y los coxos?—Que vagan a matar piojos.

Pregunto: quantos han matado?—Dios los hayga perdonado!"

Pray, what ships are returned?—Why those the English have suffered to escape.

But do tell me how many have come back?—All those that the English have let pass.

Are their names known?—Yes, perfectly ere now in London.

O now then there will be promotions?—Much to the honour of the nation.

What will they make of the under officers?—Nothing less than admirals.

But will they pay the seamen's wages?—O yes, when there is more money to be had.

And the crippled, and the maimed?—Let them go and kill lice.

But pray how many have been slain?—Oh, for these, God pardon them!

The strictest search was made, but in vain, for the author or exposers of this pasquinade. One morning, on the same spot, was seen the following notice:—*En valde me buscais; solo estava quando lo hice*—In vain you try to find me out; I was all alone when I did it.

* A striking likeness of her majesty was painted on a board, and raised on a pole above the heads of a multitude, who, forming themselves into a mock procession, paraded thus, for some time, the streets of Madrid, and finished the ceremony by lodging the portrait in the most notorious brothel of that metropolis.

warfare: one instance deserves mention. A stone was rounded into the form of a melon, of the oblong species resembling a cucumber, called in Spanish, *pepino;* which word happens to be as well a term of contempt,* as the diminutive of *pepe*, the familiar abbreviation of Joseph, answering to our Joe. This stone, painted green, was suspended before the palace gate, with the following label in large characters:—

Quando madura este melon,
Reynara Napoleon—

When this melon ripens, Napoleon will reign.

Although every exertion was made to discover the authors of this and other satirical jokes, so incessantly played off against the intrusive government, in no instance was it discovered with whom they originated. No threats could frighten, nor any promises induce any individual to betray his neighbour; a circumstance which displays a magnanimous trait in the Spaniard's character, — that of inviolable fidelity towards his friends. The only exceptions to this general characteristic are to be found among the courtiers or nobility.

A remarkable instance of patriotic secrecy occurred in General Romana's army, while it was doing duty with the French in the north of Europe. That general received information by a messenger despatched to him from England, that a British squadron was lying off the Isle of Fiunen, to transport himself and his troops back to Spain, should he only be able to effect his retreat to the coast. This secret intelligence he communicated to the officers of his staff, who imparted

* *No vale un pepino*, he is not worth a cucumber, is a proverbial saying.

it to the other officers and subalterns, and these last disclosed it to the troops. Eight days elapsed before the general could put his design into execution; yet, of the thousands who were in the mean while aware of his intentions, not one was found base enough to be induced by the hopes of reward, to betray the secret to the French, who were in force sufficient to have marred the project. These brave fellows, on their return home, were allowed by their government to wear, as a badge of distinction, a cross in the form of a mariner's compass, with the appropriate motto—*La patria es mi norte*: My country is my pole.

The simultaneous and unanimous decision repeatedly manifested by the Spaniards on great national emergencies, is a trait deserving of notice, more especially when we consider the great extent of their country, together with its distribution into so many distinct principalities, the natives of which differ from one another very materially in dialect, dress, character, and manners; and when we reflect also, that, under their arbitrary government, they had no public or regular medium of communication, such as the free press affords, but that, on the contrary, they were studiously kept in the dark with regard to cabinet measures, and were prohibited, under the strictest inquisitorial penalties, from making the authorities in church or state, and the established order of things, the subjects of their animadversion. What, in spite of all this, but a strong patriotic feeling, could have inspired them one and all, at the very moment when Bonaparte unmasked his designs upon their country, to raise their long-neglected standard in opposition to the victorious eagles of France? The Asturias, without waiting to learn the determination of the other pro-

vinces, set the example of defiance to the usurper. The other provinces as spontaneously and resolutely adopted the same step. The universally pervading sentiment was, that they would not, and therefore could not, be conquered. Yet, there was enough to appal them, and to make the most daring shrink from the venturous undertaking. They knew that they had no resources but their own individual courage and exertions, while they had to contend against the most formidable power in Europe, whose veteran armies, in all their pride of recent victories, were already in the heart of their country, and masters, by treachery, of all their principal fortresses. The flower of their troops had been artfully decoyed out of the kingdom, and sent to serve with the French at the opposite extremity of Europe. What remained of their shattered and dismantled navy, had been put into the hands of the enemy by their infatuated sovereign, and placed under the usurper's control. Their treasury was drained of the last mite, and the whole national resources were already exhausted. No wonder that Bonaparte, after having been able to effect all this under the sanction of their idiot king, imagined he could make of still passive Spain, in the forlorn and seemingly hopeless situation in which his unprincipled policy had placed her, an easy, and even a bloodless conquest. But, on pulling down the hereditary sovereign from his throne, in order to seat there his brother, he at once dispelled the charm that so bound the minds, and rivetted the respect of that loyal and magnanimous people. He soon found that he had mistaken the character of the nation he was now contending with; nor did any circumstance in his career surprize and startle him so much, as the unlooked for, undivided, and resolute opposition he met with from the Spanish people,

to the accomplishment of his ambitious designs.* But he was still more surprised and discontented, when he found this people so unconquerably obstinate and persevering in their resistance, in spite of all the outrages and cruelties by which he sought to overcome and intimidate them. It was, indeed, the English who drove the French out of Spain; but it should be remembered, that before our army entered that kingdom, Bonaparte's choicest troops, his conquering veterans, had already perished. And, indeed, considering the nature of the country, and the disposition of its inhabitants, it is probable, that, even had not Great Britain put forth, as she generously did, her strong arm in their defence, the war would only have been indefinitely protracted; that the people would never have been wholly subdued. It is an incontrovertible fact, that, during the whole time that the French remained in Spain, they never possessed an inch of her territory, except the very ground they occupied. They were always either attacked in the field by the regular troops, or hunted down in every direction, like beasts of prey, by the guerillas; nor was ever any respite allowed them which the natives could prevent.

The Spaniard, viewed also under the influence of his church, is not altogether the blind bigot, the into-

* By persons well acquainted, from personal intercourse, with the Spanish character, this determined and ungovernable spirit of resistance was not unforeseen. The author of a volume of poems, published in London, in 1808, (the Rev. W. P. Mac Donald, chaplain of De Roll's regiment,) ventured to predict in a note, that the Spaniards, whom Napoleon mistook for a nation of passive slaves, would give him more trouble to subdue, than any with whom he had hitherto contended. Mr. Southey is also entitled to the credit of having, from the first, predicted that from Spain would proceed the stone that should, by rolling, become a mountain, and overwhelm the imperial colossus.

lerant fanatic, that he has been represented. Let any one of our brave countrymen who served under Lord Wellington in the peninsula, say, if ever he was shunned or slighted by the natives on account of his differing with them on the score of religion. They would tell him readily, that they like not his religion; but it never entered into their heads, to extend, on that account, their dislike to his person. This enlightened discrimination between the person and his persuasion, is universal, in spite of the endeavours of the Inquisition to destroy it. The Spanish Government scrupled not to name Lord Wellington,* though a Protestant, to the supreme command of its Catholic army; while in Great Britain, no Roman Catholic subject could aspire to the honour of commanding a single regiment. And though Ballasteros, whose pride was hurt at seeing a foreigner thus preferred before himself, omitted no remonstrance that might in any way have tended to defeat the measure, yet, he never once ventured to urge the creed of his rival as any bar to his holding

* "There exists throughout Spain," Mr. Bowring affirms, "with some exceptions, produced by narrow interests and passing circumstances, a great affection for England. Our heresy is talked of with pity, rather than with blame. Ana Bolena, whose name is familiar to almost every Spaniard, divides the imprecations of the Spanish people with her abandoned tyrant and lord. English knights and Spanish cavaliers had 'foughten together in chevalrie,' through many an age and in many a fray. The names of British *lores* (lords) are prominent in several of the Troubadour compositions, and are mentioned by the Valencian *romanceros*, as bravely leading on their troops against the Moors. The marriage of Philip with Mary strengthened the connexion between the two countries; and the wars to which family piques have given birth, have not been able to root out sympathies planted too deeply to be destroyed by temporary events." *London Magazine*, vol. vii. p. 513.—Art. *Spanish Romances*.

the high appointment. In proof of the liberal-mindedness even of many of the Spanish clergy, we might refer to the readiness with which they concurred in the Cortes, of which they formed a considerable portion, in abolishing the Inquisition, and suppressing the monastic institutions.* Few have gone further than the Spanish divines in their opposition to the undue influence of the court of Rome, and to all the usurpations of the papal see, from the earliest ages to the present time.

The Spaniards have every requisite in their character for forming the finest troops imaginable. Though proverbially high-minded, they are perfectly submissive to the lawful authorities. Naturally abstemious, they are contented with the simplest fare and clothing, scorning delicacies of every kind, and never drinking to excess, though their excellent wines are sold cheaper than our small beer: indeed, *borracho*, or drunkard, is deemed one of the most opprobrious terms in their language. No trouble, fatigue, or privation, in the discharge of their duty, ever makes them murmur or repine. Whoever witnessed the patriotic enthusiasm of the Spanish forces in 1811, when they appeared in the most ragged, famished, and forlorn condition possible, must be fully sensible of the truth of these assertions. Though never army was worse provided for, or suffered more disasters than theirs, no mutiny ever took place among them; none ever refused obedience to their leaders, and not a man of them ever deserted to the enemy.

* See, for example, the learned Dr. Villanueva's remarks on the answers given by the Irish Catholic Bishop, Dr. Doyle, before the Committee of the House of Commons, relative to the papal jurisdiction.

It may appear astonishing, that this same people should have remained so long patient and passive under the wretched and ruinous government of Charles IV., who shewed themselves so determined in resisting the usurpation of King Joseph. The fact is, that their indignant feelings at the atrocious conduct of Bonaparte, their sympathy also for Ferdinand, whom they knew only as the victim of persecution before and after the invasion, their general dislike to the French, and their hatred of French revolutionary principles,—all concurred to rouse them from their lethargy, and made them rush to arms. Hitherto, they had been swayed by their high sense of the obedience due to the established authorities, never deeming themselves absolved from their allegiance on account of the personal vices, or even the misconduct of their rulers; and though their government was internally as despotic as it was externally weak and contemptible, yet, its tyrannical measures never immediately affected the lower orders, or the great mass of the community. Contrasted with those of the same class in other countries, in spite of all the defects of their government, they enjoyed under it a state of comparative happiness, and even independence. The leases of their farms, in most places, were held to perpetuity, with seldom any augmentation of rent; and when a storm, inundation, or any other unavoidable accident happened to damage or destroy the fruits of their industry, a discount in their favour was usually allowed or awarded them, in proportion to the loss they had thus sustained. In case even that a distress were put upon their property, (a thing almost unheard of among them,) the mechanic's tools, and the farmer's labouring utensils, never became forfeited to their owners; it being, in the mild spirit of their law,

accounted cruel and unjust to deprive such persons of the absolutely necessary means of retrieving their misfortunes. Had a husbandman, however, neglected for several seasons to cultivate some portion of his farm—a vineyard or a corn-field—allowing it to run wild and become unproductive, any neighbour, desirous of gaining possession of it in order to turn it to account, might, in many of the inland districts, make it his own, on planting, before witnesses, a vine root in it, and engaging to pay a proportional rent for it to the proprietor. All this might be an ill-judged system in a populous, well-improved, and trafficking nation; but, in a country so thinly peopled as Spain, from the interior of which, owing to the badness of the roads, nothing can be exported but on the backs of mules, the case is different. There, no motive operates to stimulate the industrious exertions of the natives, further than their own particular wants, and the fulfilment of the agreements understood to exist between the husbandman and the proprietor.

The ready and unexpensive means afforded to every one not litigiously inclined, of maintaining his civil rights, also contributed not a little to make them contented under the existing order of things.

To shew how far this was the case, it is necessary to premise, that ever since the expulsion of the Moors from Spain, a ridiculous, but legal distinction has been kept up between those who can prove themselves not descended from that infidel race, and those who cannot. The former constitute an inferior class of nobility, called *hidalgos*, or gentlemen, who are entitled to the appellation of *Don*, and are admissible to posts of honour in the state or army. They also enjoy privileges and immunities of which the king, though so

absolute a monarch, cannot deprive them, among which is an exemption from certain taxes, and from impressments into the army; only, should the king in person take the field, they are under obligation to follow him as volunteers. Persons entering the church, on their taking holy orders, are merged in this class. But what is very singular, an Irish Roman Catholic settling in Spain, is accounted one of this dignified class, enjoys its immunities, and may forthwith aspire to the first posts of honour in the kingdom; while a native, unable to prove his *sangre limpia* (pure blood) and uncontaminated descent from Christian ancestry, finds himself deprived of all such privileges, and debarred from every dignified situation. The Irish, however, are considered as sprung from one common origin with the Spaniards.

The whole population being thus divided into two great castes, the noble and the plebeian, two magistrates, named *alcaldes*, are annually chosen by the inhabitants in every town and village; the one a noble, by the nobles, to defend their rights, or adjust their differences; the other, for a like purpose, a plebeian, by the plebeians. Those who are elected *alcaldes* are generally distinguished by a reputation for good sense and integrity; and, except such flattering testimonial of the public esteem, their post affords them no emolument. The poorest, even, are as readily chosen as the rich; nor is it uncommon to see the servant of some wealthy plebeian, should he happen to be of the dignified caste, nominated the alcalde of the nobles. In 1797, an instance of this kind occurred in *Bascillo*, a village eight miles from Valladolid, situated on the banks of the Duero. The servant of a plebeian *cachican*, that is, the keeper of a vineyard and wine-vaults, having been chosen noble alcalde for that year, had

to decide a difference between his master and one of his own order. His decision was given against his master; but the judgement, once definitively passed, becomes part of the law. Should any one, indeed, deem himself thereby aggrieved, he can appeal, but at a great expense, to the court of chancery. This, however, is rarely done, not so much in consideration of the costs, as because the cases are so few in which that court has been induced to annul or alter the sentence passed by these rustic judges. When a case is to be tried in any of these petty courts, if the affair concerns those of only one caste, the magistrate of that caste alone attends: if otherwise, both magistrates are present. No peculiarity of costume distinguishes them, but no sooner have they taken their seat in the court-hall, and assumed each a rod, the badge of their office and authority, than silence ensues, and all stand uncovered before them. When they have heard the parties, and given their decision, they lay down their rods, quit the bench of justice, and mingle with the by-standers on the same footing of equality as before, talking on every subject but the one they have just decided upon. There can be little doubt that Cervantes had this singular court in his eye, when he invented the admirable fiction of Sancho's government in the island of Barataria; a word evidently derived from *barato*, cheap, and chosen by him, it would seem, to designate a jurisdiction obtained without cost, and enjoyed without profit, like that of the village *alcalde*. This rude system of judicature, the Spaniards carried with them into the New World; and the Indians of Mexico are still governed, in their separate villages, by native magistrates of their own colour. Its naturalisation in those distant colonies among a semi-civilised race, is a circumstance more

remarkable, perhaps, than its existence in the mother country, where it has grown out of the peculiar constitution of society, and is sanctioned by venerable usage. In both Old and New Spain, however, these rustic courts of equity may have been indebted for their authority and popularity to their being, with all their imperfections, the only tribunals where either a prompt decision or an impartial sentence was to be obtained. Nothing could possibly be worse than every part of the civil, fiscal, and criminal administration in the Spanish colonies; * and yet, according to the representations of Spanish writers themselves, the state of things at home could not be much less deplorable. The ordinary and regular forms of civil process are slow and complicated to so ruinous a degree, that the expenses of gaining a just cause are, we are told, much greater than the loss of submitting to an unjust demand. The appeals from one jurisdiction to another are endless, and the whole machinery of the courts is exquisitely adapted to the encouragement of interminable litigation and of the unprincipled chicanery of the writers, who form the sole medium of communication between the client and the judge. The Baratarian tribunal were infinitely preferable to such a system.

It would be difficult, not to say impossible, to give a fair representation of the national character of the Spaniards, not only on account of the varied aspect which it assumes in the several classes of society, but because the natives of different provinces differ from each other not less widely than the inhabitants of distinct countries. The Castilians, especially the inhabitants of Old Castile, pride themselves, not wholly

* See Mod. Trav., Mexico, vol. i. p. 96.

without reason, on their high sense of honour. They are described as gloomy and taciturn, more solemn and stately than the inhabitants of any other province, but upright, generous, and sincere,* "the most worthy people in Spain," though not the most active or industrious. Those of New Castile are said to partake in great measure of this spirit of generosity and nobleness; † they are sober, temperate, and equally

* If a Castilian says to you, "*Mi casa esta a su disposicion de V. M.*," my house is at your disposal,—you may enter it all times, with as little ceremony as you would your own, and share with him, as a brother, in his family-fare and entertainments. At no time can you visit him amiss; and the more you make yourself at home with him, the more he likes and prizes your acquaintance.

† The very banditti of the country are not unsusceptible of a romantic spirit of generosity and sense of honour. Of this we shall venture to cite a singular instance. A volume, indeed, might be filled with similar traits of generosity and Quixote-like heroism, displayed by these desperate outlaws. Melero, a notorious chief of robbers, who was afterwards taken and executed at Valladolid, was one evening prowling in disguise near that city, when he was addressed by a poor student, supplicating an alms to enable him to prosecute his studies at the university. The robber inquired how he came to be so reduced in his circumstances; on which the student told him, that a rich old uncle on the father's side, a canon of the cathedral, had, at his father's death, got possession, as executor, of all the family property, to a certain amount; out of which he had hitherto refused to allow him even the necessary means of subsistence. The robber, upon this, gave the student a dollar, saying that it was all the money he then had at his disposal; but that if he would meet him at the same place, about the same hour, on such a day, he would probably have it in his power to do more for him. He then inquired, in a seemingly careless manner, the uncle's name and address, and departed. They met again at the time and place appointed, when the robber delivered to the student a bag of gold equal in amount to the paternal property which had been unjustly withheld from him. Melero had, it appeared, in the interim, broken into the canon's house, and forced him to deliver up the whole of his hoarded treasures. The overplus only of the sum stated, he reserved for himself. The circumstance was made known by the nephew himself, after his uncle's death and the execution of Melero.

free from every species of falsehood or duplicity, while they are of more docile temper, and, under a lofty aspect and grave demeanour, conceal a proneness to excessive mirth. The Castilian is rather slow in yielding his confidence, but, when it is once conceded, it is given with all his heart and soul. This character of probity and hospitality is ascribed to the natives of some other provinces. The Galicians, in particular, as they are the most industrious, so they claim to be regarded as the most thoroughly trustworthy. *Tan fiel como un Gallego*, as faithful as a Galician, is a proverb. They are the reapers and general labourers, and their very name (*gallego*) has become, from this circumstance, synonymous with servant. Next to them, the Catalonians and the Valencians, though differing from each other as widely as the Scotch from the Irish, have the reputation of being active and enterprising. The Murcians bear the worst character; they are described as "lazy, listless, plotting, and suspicious." The Biscayans are precisely the reverse; laborious, active, frank, lively, sociable, fiery, and generous. Laborde compares the Biscayan to the Basque, the Catalonian to the Provençal, the Valencian to the native of Lower Languedoc, the Galician to the Auvergnese, and the Andalusian to the Gascon. And these varieties in the national character are recognised even in the colonists. "The Andalusians of Venezuela, the Biscayans of Mexico, and the Catalans of Buenos Ayres, differ essentially," Humboldt says, "in their aptitude for agriculture, the mechanic arts, commerce, and science. Each of those races has preserved, in the New as in the Old World, the shades that constitute its national physiognomy; its harshness or its mildness of character, its modera-

tion or its excessive love of gain, its kind hospitality or its love of solitude."* "The Catalans, the Galicians, and the Biscayans, who have had the most frequent intercourse with America, form there, as it were, three distinct corporations, which exercise a remarkable influence over the morals, the industry, and the commerce of the colonies. The poorest inhabitant of Siges or of Vigo is sure of being received into the house of a Catalan or Galician *pulpero* (retail dealer), on landing either at Chili, or at the Philippine Islands. I have seen the most affecting instances of these attentions rendered to unknown persons during whole years, and always without a murmur."† "If a native of their own country lands without a farthing," says another Traveller, "the first Catalan he meets, takes him to his house, gives him work, or recommends him to some of his countrymen. There are many countries in which one brother would not do for another, that which a Catalan is always inclined to do for his countrymen."‡ In this respect, they have been compared to the Scotch. Captain Basil Hall, in like manner, bears testimony to the honourable character of the old Spaniards of the Colonies. "As merchants," he says, "they are active, enterprising, and honourable in all their dealings. It is only on the national question between them and the natives, that they are illiberal. Towards those with whom they are acquainted personally, or with whom they have business to transact, they are always fair and reasonable. They are much less tainted with bigotry than the natives; they are men, taken generally, of pleasing conversation and manners, and

* Pers. Nar. vol. iii. p. 426. † Ibid. vol. ii. p. 139.
‡ Lavaysse's Venezuela, p. 108.

habitually obliging; and when not pressed by immediate danger and difficulties, especially so to strangers; for, notwithstanding their characteristic jealousy, their prejudices never interfere with their cordial hospitality and even generosity to foreigners who treat them with confidence and frankness. A Don, it is well known, is the most stately of mortals to those who treat him with hauteur or reserve; but, to those who really confide in him, and treat him, not precisely in a familiar manner, but in what they term *un mode corriente*, he becomes as cordial and open as any man."*

Colonists seldom exhibit the most favourable specimens of the national character. If the Spaniards are an exception to the rule, the fault must lie in their institutions and the wretched character of their government; and perhaps the native excellence of the Spanish character shews itself in nothing more, than in its having resisted to so great an extent the debasing tendency of ages of misrule. Dr. Southey has forcibly depicted the state of moral and political degradation into which Spain had gradually been relapsing since the power of the monarch and the church had been rendered paramount and absolute, and which had reached its extreme point of depression at the epoch of the French revolution. "The effects of this double tyranny," he remarks, "were not immediately perceived; but, in its inevitable consequence, it corrupted and degraded every thing to which it could extend,—laws, morals, industry, literature, science, arts, and arms. In other countries, where absolute monarchy has been established, and the Romish superstition has triumphed, both have been in some degree

* Hall's Extracts from a Journal, vol. ii. p. 270.

modified by the remains of old institutions, the vicinity of free states, and the influence of literature and manners. But in Spain and Portugal, almost all traces of the ancient constitution had been effaced; and as there existed nothing to qualify the spirit of popery, a memorable example was given of its unmitigated effects. The experiment of intolerance was tried with as little compunction as in Japan, and upon a larger scale. Like the Japanese government, the Inquisition went through with what it began; and though it could not in like manner secure its victory, by closing the ports and barring the passes of the Peninsula, it cut off, as much as possible, all intellectual communication with the rest of the world. The courts of Madrid and Lisbon were as despotic as those of Constantinople and Ispahan. They did not, indeed, manifest their power by acts of blood, because the reigning families were not cruel, and cruelty had ceased to be a characteristic of the times; but with that cold, callous insensibility, to which men are liable in proportion as they are removed from the common sympathies of humankind, they permitted their ministers to dispense at pleasure exile and hopeless imprisonment, to the rigour and inhumanity of which death itself would have been mercy. The laws afforded no protection, for the will of the minister was above the laws; and every man who possessed influence at court, violated them with impunity, and procured impunity for all whom he chose to protect. Scarcely did there exist even an appearance of criminal justice. Quarrels among the populace were commonly decided by the knife; he who stabbed an antagonist or an enemy in the street, wiped the instrument in his cloak, and passed on, unmolested by the spectators, who never interfered further than to call a priest to the dying

man. When it happened that a criminal was thrown into prison, there he remained till it became necessary to make room for a new set of tenants; the former were then turned adrift; or, if their crimes had been notorious and frequent, they were shipped off to some foreign settlement. After the triumph of the monarchical power, the Cortes had fallen first into insignificance, then into disuse. There was no legislative body; the principle of the government being, that all laws and public measures of every kind were to proceed from the will and pleasure of the sovereign. Men of rank, therefore, if they were not in office, had no share in public business; and their deplorable education rendered them little fit either to improve or enjoy a life of perfect leisure. . It is said also to have been the system of both governments, while they yet retained some remains of perverted policy, to keep the nobles in attendance about the court, where they might be led into habits of emulous extravagance, which would render them hungry for emoluments, and thereby dependent upon the crown. The long-continued moral deterioration of the privileged classes had produced, in many instances, a visible physical degeneracy; and this tendency was increased by those incestuous marriages, common in both countries, which pride and avarice had introduced, and for which the sanction of an immoral church was to be purchased.

"The armies partook of the general degradation. The forms of military power existed like the forms of justice; but they resembled the trunk of a tree, of which the termites have eaten out the timber, and only the bark remains. There appeared in the yearly almanacks a respectable list of regiments, and a redundant establishment of officers: but brave and capable of endurance as the Portuguese and Spaniards are, never were

there such officers or such armies in any country which has ranked among civilised nations. Subalterns might be seen waiting behind a chair in their uniforms, or asking alms in the streets; and the men were what soldiers necessarily become, when, without acquiring any one virtue of their profession, its sense of character and honour, its regularity, or its habits of restraint, they possess all its license, and have free scope for the vices which spring up in idleness. Drawn by lot into a compulsory service, ill-disciplined, and ill-paid, they were burdensome to the people, without affording any security to the nation." *

Religion, taking the word in its emphatic sense, was in a most miserable condition; but it presented, in some respects, a less gloomy aspect. Although the people at large were under the absolute dominion of superstitious feeling, and the parochial clergy, as well as the monastic orders, were nearly on the same level with the laity in point of mental enlargement, yet, there were signs of the approach of a better state of things. The dignitaries of the church were men of respectable characters. The spirit of intolerance was mitigated; much had been done, by commercial intercourse and other circumstances to diminish the horror in which heretics had been formerly held; and some progress had been made towards the introduction of liberal opinions. The morals of the lower classes were deeply depraved, and the influence of what may be called their vulgar rather than their popular literature, must have greatly tended to the increase of their licentiousness. The robber or the assassin was usually the hero of the ballad; nor was the Spanish drama free from this gross perversion of right feeling and taste. Even the higher

* Southey's Hist. of the Peninsular War, vol. i. pp. 4—7.

orders were infected by this corruption of manners. Noblemen delighted to ape the ruffian and the bravo; and women were found among those of distinguished rank, who affected the dress and the manners of the vilest of their sex.

One cause, however, which tended more than any other circumstance to demoralise the lower classes and to increase the number of banditti, was the great temptation held out to smuggling, together with the excessive rigour of the penal laws in reference to such offences. All contraband articles, being the property of the king, were retailed under his authority at an enormous profit; and whosoever was found guilty of selling a single ounce of tobacco without that authority, was punished, for the first offence, with fine and imprisonment; for the second, with years of hard labour; and for the third, were sentenced to the galleys for life; the informer being, in each case, progressively remunerated. Those who had once entered, therefore, upon this perilous mode of life, could never think it safe to retrace their steps: commencing as smugglers, they often ended by joining the banditti, dreading less to end their days on the scaffold, than to drag out upon the chain a lingering life of toil and ignominy. The bands of "the army of faith" are said to have been chiefly composed of these desperadoes.

Yet, in spite of all these demoralising influences, it is remarkable, that the character of the peasantry in general had partaken but little of the national decay; and those who have dwelt among them have borne honourable testimony to their social virtues. At the period alluded to, Dr. Southey remarks, "there was not the slightest appearance of improvement in the principles of the government, or in the administration of justice; but, if such a disposition had arisen, no

nation could have been in a more favourable state for the views of a wise minister and an enlightened sovereign. For the whole people were proudly and devotedly attached to the institutions of their country; there existed among them neither sects, nor factions, nor jarring interests; they were one-hearted in all things which regarded their native land. Individuals felt for its honour as warmly as for their own; and obedience to their sovereign was, with them, equally a habit and a principle. In spite of the blind and inveterate despotism of the government, the maladministration of the laws, and the degeneracy of the higher classes, both Spain and Portugal were in a state of slow, but certain advancement; of which increasing commerce, reviving literature, humaner manners, and mitigated bigotry, were unequivocal indications." Such was the moral and intellectual state of the population of both kingdoms towards the close of the eighteenth century.

Prior to the French invasion, indeed, if we may trust the perhaps partial accounts of some travellers —but that very partiality on the part of foreigners, speaks loudly in favour of the national character— the Spaniards were among the happiest people in the world. Spain was still the land of romance, of chivalrous gallantry, of the dance, and of song. A spirit of poetry animated the whole population. "There is not a hill, nor a valley, nor a streamlet," says the Translator of Spanish Romances, "which it has failed to consecrate. The very beggar decorates his petitions with poetical imagery: he asks 'a blessed alms from tenderness for one the flower of whose life has been blasted,' or from whom 'the light of heaven has been shut out by a celestial visitation.' The muleteer chants his ever-varying *cancion* to a strain that varies never;

but, while the sun shines, (and it is seldom clouded,) his voice is always heard; and there is scarcely a village where some *repentista* (improvisatore) has not his portion of poetry and praise.....Even in the obscure and trackless recesses which have scarcely ever been trodden by the foot of a stranger,—in spots beyond the influence of civilisation, where the mass-book and the lives of the saints make up the sum total of the learning of the most learned,—the historical romances have served as the great depositories, the faithful archives of all that is interesting in the chronicles of Spain, since *Rodrigo el Desdichado* completed the ruin which *Witiza el Nefando* had begun. These beautiful and touching compositions have been conveyed from tongue to tongue; and have served to transfer from generation to generation, in all their strength and freshness, the events as well as the sympathies of other days.....The nationality of the Spaniards, and the geographical position of their country, to which that nationality is partly owing, have preserved, even down to the present day, many of the characteristics of the age of chivalry. The respect and devotion with which the fair sex are treated, are quite remarkable. 'I kiss your feet, my lady,' is the accustomed salutation. A woman is a sacred object; and the very meanest Spaniard would shrink with horror from the slightest outrage committed on a female. *Manos blancas no ofenden*, 'White hands can never offend,' is the universal consolation, even when feminine indiscretion becomes ungentle. Down to the time of Charles III., it was the custom, in many of the southern provinces, for a gentleman to bend on one knee whenever a lady addressed him. The Spanish drama is crowded with incidents and beautiful sentiments founded on the extraordinary influence of woman. The power of

beauty (*armas de la hermosura*) and the divinity of kings, are the two great subjects of the Spanish stage." *

The Spanish dances are all strictly national; some are supposed to be of Moorish origin: the two most remarkable are the fandango and the bolero, which will be noticed hereafter. This favourite national amusement is for the most part performed in the open air to the sound of the guitar and the tambarine, each dancer keeping time with the castanets fastened to the hands and heels. In some shady, sequestered thicket, the traveller may often espy such light-hearted groupes as Milton paints, when

> "— the jocund rebecks sound
> To many a youth and many a maid
> Dancing in the checker'd shade;
> And young and old come forth to play
> On a sunshine holiday,
> Till the livelong daylight fail."

Or, if he happen to pass when, seated near some fountain or brook, they are enjoying their *merienda*, or afternoon repast, whether young or old, he will be invited to partake of their fare, or at any rate to taste their wine. Nor are the guitar and tambarine silent on such occasions; at regular pauses, the voices resume the amorous catch of the sweetly plaintive *seguidilla*. In the fine moonlight summer nights, these innocent revelries are often kept up till a very late hour; and to the fancy of the traveller, might call up the gay groupe described by the Roman bard:

> "Jam Cytherea choros ducit Venus, imminente Lunâ,
> Junctæque Nymphis Gratiæ decentes
> Alterno terram quatiunt pede." †

* London Magazine, art. Spanish Romances (by Mr. Bowring), vol. vii. pp. 405, 509; viii. p. 50.

† Horat. lib. i. od. 4.

The two Castiles are the only provinces in which the Spanish language is spoken in its purity, on which account it is called *Castiliano;* and it is remarkable, that the Castilian peasant speaks it as correctly, and with as appropriate an accent as the courtier. The Spanish language was formed, according to the opinion of their own writers, during the three hundred years of the Visigothic dominion. "It is evidently," remarks M. Sismondi, "the result of a mixture of the German with the Latin, the terminations of the latter being contracted. The Arabic afterwards enriched it with a number of expressions which preserve their foreign character; and this circumstance has no doubt had an influence on the pronunciation of the language." The laws promulgated by the Visigothic sovereigns, were in Latin. During the domination of the Moors, there was a period at which the Arabic was almost universally employed, except in the churches. The Spaniards who had taken refuge in the mountains, still retained, however, together with their old laws and religion, their use of the rustic Roman, although they did not all speak the same dialect. In Catalonia, the Provençal, or Limousin, prevailed; in Asturias, Leon, and Old Castile, the Castilian; in Galicia, the *Gallego*, the parent of the Portuguese; in Navarre and some parts of Biscay, the Basque, — a Celtic dialect, or, according to some, of Numidian origin, and of an antiquity prior to the Roman conquest.* When, in the eleventh century,

* The Cantabrian or Biscayan, though it has many words in common with the Latin, and is probably related to the Celtic dialects which were succeeded by the Latin, claims to be considered as a language distinct from either the Celtic, the Latin, or the Spanish. In some words, it is said to bear a resemblance to the Irish, and it has adopted a few German words, while it has furnished the modern Spanish with more than a hundred original

the Christians began to recover Spain from the Saracens, the languages which had been preserved by these mountaineers, were introduced into the South; and Spain became divided, as to language, into three longitudinal portions. The Catalan, spoken in the states of Aragon, extended along the shores of the Mediterranean, from the Pyrenees to the kingdom of Murcia; the Castilian was spoken throughout the central region, from the Pyrenees to the kingdom of Granada; and the Portuguese, from Galicia to the kingdom of Algarve.*

This brief preliminary sketch of the institutions, character, and provincial distinctions of the Spanish people, will, it is hoped, sufficiently prepare the reader to accompany the modern traveller in his tour through this highly interesting country. We shall make our entry into the Peninsula by the eastern pass of the Pyrenees, taking for our principal guide in this direction, the French traveller, M. Laborde, who visited Spain in 1808, 9. His "View of Spain," though it cannot be very highly commended for either its discrimination or its accuracy, and has no pretensions to the character of a scientific work, contains a more full and minute topographical description of the country, than any other publication extant. We shall avail ourselves at the same time, of the interesting "Journey through Spain in the years 1786, 7," by our highly respected countryman, the Rev. Joseph Townsend; †

words. Its construction is extremely intricate, the verbs having eleven moods. It is spoken in the angles of France and Spain adjoining the northern extremity of the Pyrenees.—See *Quart. Rev.* vol. x. p. 281, Art. *Adelung's Mithridates.*

* Sismondi's Hist. View of the Literature of the South of Europe, vol. iii. chap. 23.

† Mr. Townsend recommends the traveller who wishes to make the tour of Spain, to begin his journey in autumn, when he may

the Travels of Henry Swinburne, Esq., at an earlier part of the eighteenth century; and the brief sketches furnished by M. Thiers, who crossed the Pyrenees at the critical period of November 1822.

ROUTE FROM PERPIGNAN TO BARCELONA.

As soon as you have quitted the plains of Provence, and entered those of Languedoc, you are sensible, says the last-mentioned Traveller, of the vicinity of Spain: "it almost begins there, and the Rhone may be said to be its boundary. As soon as you have crossed it, you are struck with a new pronunciation. The girdle and the reddish-brown bonnet thrown backwards, already announce the costume of Catalonia. At Roussillon, the ancient Narbonne is in sight, and Spain itself seems to appear. The old Romance language,—which, mixed with the Italian in Piedmont, with the French in Provence, with the Spanish in Languedoc, forms in turn the Piedmontese, the Provençal, and the *langue d'Oc*,—here becomes almost pure Catalonian. The women wear a light hood, which they either fold in a square form on their heads or suffer to hang upon their shoulders. The men wear a long red cap, which hangs down the back,—a degenerated form of the net in which the Catalonians

go by Bayonne, Burgos, Valladolid, and Segovia, to Madrid. During the winter, he may visit all the south of Spain,—Toledo, Cordova, Seville, Cadiz, Malaga, Granada; and pass through Murcia and Valencia to Barcelona. "Returning by Zaragoza to Aranjuez in the spring, he may follow the Merino flock to the mountains of the north, while the country on which he has turned his back, is rendered unfit for travelling, by dissolving heats, want of provisions, and malignant fevers. This season will be best employed in Gallicia, the Asturias, and Biscay, taking Salamanca and Leon in the way."

envelop their hair. A short jacket, a red girdle folded several times round their loins, wide pantaloons, and shoes or *sabots*, (for they are not acquainted here with *spartillas*,) form the rest of their dress. Their resemblance to the Catalonians is easily accounted for, when we recollect, that the Pyrenees rapidly decline between Catalonia and Roussillon, and that these two provinces were under the same dominion till the reign of Louis XIII."

Perpignan is an ancient place, strongly fortified. It derives importance from its position, being the passage from Roussillon to Catalonia. It is situated in a beautiful plain, bounded, on the west, by Mount Canigou, one of the highest summits of the Pyrenean chain; on the north, by the mountains of Corbiéres; on the east, by fertile hills, which divide it from the sea-coast; and on the south, by the Catalonian mountains. The temperature is so mild, that the orange flourishes in the neighbourhood, in the open air; and immense olive-plantations extend to the foot of Canigou. From Perpignan to Boulon, a distance of six leagues, the road leads over this plain. On the right, is seen *Mas-Dieu*, an ancient seat of the Templars; also the villages of *Pollestras*, *Vilamulaca*, *Passa*, and *Tresserra:* on the left, situated on an eminence, is *Banuls dels Aspres.*

Boulon, though now only a village, was formerly a fortified town. Part of its walls, and the ruins of its fortifications, are still to be seen. It is finely situated on the right bank of the Tec, and on the edge of a fertile plain. Its ancient name was *Stabulum;* and a Roman military road formerly passed through it. The Tec is here very broad, and often dangerous after rains, from the swelling of the river and the shifting of its sands. In its ordinary state, carriages and cattle

ford it, and foot-passengers cross it on rafts or in small boats. At some distance from Boulon, the traveller begins to ascend the Pyrenees by a gentle rise, which gradually becomes steeper. The road, however, is fine and wide, and supported on the precipices by very good walls, bridges having been thrown over the hollows. It formerly required the strength of thirty men, and almost as many oxen, to drag up a carriage, which four horses now draw with ease. At the end of two leagues, the traveller arrives at the village of Ecluse, the *Clausura* of the Romans; and soon after reaches the summit of the mountain. The castle of Bellegarde, standing on a round, lofty, insulated mountain, defends this defile, called the pass of Pertus (Portus). From this very elevated point, is obtained a boundless view over both kingdoms. At the pass below, there is an office for the examination of passports, with a guard-house. A little further on, a bridge marks the boundary which separates France from Spain. There were formerly some columns here, which the French, in the days of the Republic, threw down and destroyed.

The province of *Catalonia*, on which we now enter, extends forty leagues from east to west, and forty-four from north-east to south-west. On the east, it is bounded by the Mediterranean; on the south, by the kingdom of Valencia; and on the west, by Aragon. Its principal towns are, Barcelona, the capital and the seat of a bishop; Tarragona, the see of an archbishop; Urgel, Lerida, Gerona, Salsona, Vich, Tortosa, all episcopal sees; six other towns dignified with the name of cities, and five sea-ports. It contains, according to Laborde, besides its eight cathedrals and eighteen collegiate chapters, twenty-two abbeys, a grand priory, and 2,784 religious houses. The pro-

vince is watered by twenty-six rivers, ten of which fall into the sea. The Ebro, the largest of them, is very important for its navigation.

Catalonia was one of the first provinces of Spain, in which the Romans succeeded in establishing their power; and it was also one of the first that shook off the yoke of the Saracens, being recovered from them by the French at the end of the eighth, or the beginning of the ninth century. From A.D. 839, it formed a distinct sovereignty, of which Barcelona was the capital, and was governed by sixteen successive counts, till Raymond V., the last of these, ascended the throne of Aragon, in consequence of his marriage with Petronilla, the heiress to that kingdom: he died in 1172. The dominions of these Counts of Barcelona comprised, besides Catalonia, Roussillon, Cerdagne, the county of Foix, and a great part of Languedoc. After the accession of this house to the throne of Aragon, Count Raymond's successors extended their dominion over the islands of Majorca and Minorca, Sicily, and the kingdom of Valencia. At length the whole Spanish monarchy was united under the Castilian sceptre.

The circumstances of Count Raymond's accession to the throne of Aragon, are of a romantic character. Ramiro, brother of the warlike Alphonso I., had been summoned from a monastery to succeed him on the throne. He obtained a dispensation from his vows in order to marry; but, when his daughter Petronilla was yet an infant, conceiving that he had done enough in providing for the legitimate succession, he abdicated the crown in her favour, having first affianced her to Raymond Berenger as her preceptor and consort. He then buried himself again in a monastery, where, nevertheless, he continued to occupy himself with the cares of government. The illustrious husband of

Petronilla is said to have refused, even after the death of Ramiro, the offered title of king. His queen survived him, but resigned the throne at his death, in favour of their son, Alphonso II. Their grandson, Pedro II., distinguished himself by his love of poetry and his gallantries. He was the liberal patron of the Provençal bards, and died in defending the cause of the Albigenses. The male line of Raymond Berenger became extinct at the death of Martin, son of Pedro IV., after having reigned in honour and prosperity during 273 years. To this truly illustrious house, religion, literature, the arts, commerce, — in a word, the cause of civilisation in Europe, was greatly indebted. Its princes, to the glory of having conquered the Moors, added the proud distinction of having humbled kings and tyrannical pontiffs, and, in a barbarous age, exhibited the rare example of a wise tolerance and a respect for the unalienable rights of man. King Martin was succeeded by Ferdinand of Castile, six of the judges to whom the claims of the rival pretenders to the throne were referred, having pronounced in his favour.

Under the Counts of Barcelona, Catalonia was divided into *viguerias*, or jurisdictions governed by a *viguier* (vicar), or lieutenant, with very extensive powers. This kind of magistracy existed even after the union of Catalonia with the Spanish monarchy; but the viceroys, on whom the king conferred the command of this province, gradually undermined the authority of the *viguiers;* and at the conclusion of the seventeenth century, they had lost their most important privileges. The political revolution which seated a branch of the Bourbon family on the throne of Spain, gave a fatal blow to the remains of independence

in Catalonia. Having taken up arms against its new sovereign, it was deprived of its ancient privileges; the *viguerias* were abolished, and it was placed, like the rest of the kingdom, under corregidors.

From the middle of the eleventh century to this period, Catalonia had enjoyed its own laws and local customs, which Count Raymond, in 1068, had substituted for the Gothic laws, then fallen into desuetude. By the gradual enfranchisement of the serfs,* the feudal system had been abolished. After the union of Catalonia with Aragon, the principality still had its own states, who shared the legislative power with the sovereign. They assembled at Barcelona, and occasionally in several other towns. After Roussillon was united to Catalonia, they sometimes met at Perpignan. The deputies were composed of the three orders, clergy, nobility, and commons. The first consisted of the bishops, abbots, deputies of chapters, and of some religious bodies; the second, of all the nobles above the age of twenty, and of proprietors of noble fiefs; the third was called *universidades*, better expressed by the word *commons*, for, in Catalonia, the name of university is given to the municipalities and corporations of towns. The deputies from towns admitted to the states were very few. The states still assembled at Barcelona as late as 1702; but Philip V. abolished these privileges, of which the Catalans were extremely jealous; and they retained only the right of sending deputies to the states-general of the Spanish monarchy.

The aspect of the country on the southern side of

* The last serfs in Catalonia, of whom any mention is made, were the inhabitants of *Remenca*, whom Ferdinand the Catholic enfranchised in the year 1483.

the mountain barrier,* presents a striking contrast to that of the fertile plains of Roussillon. In ascending the Pyrenees on the French side, the limestone formation is succeeded by schist, which extends to the very summit. To the mixture of the clay formed by the mouldering schistous rocks with the calcareous earth, Mr. Townsend ascribes the luxuriant fertility of the marly lands below. But the moment you begin to descend to the south, the rock changes to granite, and the face of the country appears barren and desolate. The only useful vegetable productions of these high mountains are, the ilex and the cork-tree: the latter is very profitable on account of its bark.† At the feet of the Pyrenees, on the Catalonian side, is seen an extensive valley, every where shut in by mountains, excepting a small opening to the sea near Castillon de Empurias in the Bay of Roses. In this extensive basin, which, as seen from the mountains, seems flat and level, are many hills, some rising boldly, some gently swelling, and covered with various kinds of soil, chiefly decomposed granite. In some parts, the "hungry sand" has acquired an unusual proportion of clay, and is exceedingly productive. The cultivated land is covered with vines, olive-plantations, and rye; the uncultivated abounds with the cork-tree. It is a descent of about a league, by a very fine road,

* The mountains which divide France from Spain in this direction, are, Swinburne says, of no very considerable elevation. That of Canigou, according to M. Raymond, is 8,562 feet above the level of the sea.

† The operation of peeling the bark cannot be repeated here, Swinburne says, above once in seven or eight years; but, in the southern parts of Spain, it is performed every fifth year. The trunks, when recently stripped, are of a dusky red. The surrounding mountains are clothed with these trees, which attain a great size and age.

to the foot of the Pyrenees, where stands the little town of *La Junquera*, at the entrance of a plain, which Strabo describes as fertile in flax and abounding with bulrushes; whence the plain was called *Campus Juncarius*, and the town *Juncaria*. It contains a parish-church, an office for the king's duties, and a guard of fifty men; but, though situated on the frontier, has but little trade. There is but one inn in the place, and that a wretched one, though tolerable in comparison with the *posadas* which await the traveller in many parts of Spain. At this first office, travellers are usually very strictly searched; but, unless the principal officers are present, or too many curious spectators flock about the carriage, a small bribe, as in most other places, will obviate this inconvenience.* La Junquera, though now a mere village, was once a considerable city, and an episcopal see. It was peopled by a colony from Marseilles. Near it, in 920, was fought a bloody battle, between the Moors and the Christians, in which the latter were routed with great slaughter. On leaving La Junquera,† the

* There is one great inconvenience, however, not to be so easily avoided by those who travel in their own carriage, namely, the payment of an enormous duty, amounting generally to three-fourths of the value of the carriage. The only way to get clear of this expense, is to engage to send the carriage out of the country within a stated time; in which case, the party must have a letter of recommendation or credit, to some person established at Junquera, who is to answer for the performance of such engagement, binding himself to pay the supposed duty. The merchants at Perpignan take care to furnish travellers with the letters necessary for complying with this indispensable formality.

† Mr. Townsend was struck by seeing the peasants here "exercise their skill in drinking without touching the mouth of the bottle with their lips." It is surprising, he says, from what a height they "let the liquid fall in one continued stream, without missing their aim or spilling a drop. For this purpose, the orifice

road becomes stony, and cut up with gutters, running a long way by the side of the mountains, through passages more or less narrow, crooked, and deep. The traveller has to cross seven times the river *Llobregat*, which, by its sharp windings, renders this route at times dangerous. It is frequently almost dry; but, in rainy weather, it becomes impassable. After proceeding two leagues, he comes to *Hostal-nou*, and crossing the river *Muga* by the bridge of *Molins del Rey*, enters the district of *Ampurdan*. An immense plain then opens before him, carefully cultivated, and divided by hedges of aloe and wild pomegranate. Wheat, rye, flax, and hemp, with vegetables of every kind, cover the earth, together with orchards and olive-grounds, and the whole scene is rich and smiling. After travelling for a league over this fertile plain, the traveller arrives at *Figueras*, "an ugly, straggling town," situated in the middle of the plain. It has, like almost all Spanish towns, its square (*plaza*); the streets are tolerably wide; and it contains a parish-church, two convents (Cordelier and Capuchin), an hospital, a small garrison, and about 4,000 inhabitants; but it has little trade, and that little is owing to its proximity to France. There are two passable inns in the place. The luggage of travellers is here searched again by the revenue-officers, who may be got rid of as at La Junquera.*

In the reign of Ferdinand VI. a spacious fortress

of the spout is small, and from their infancy they learn to swallow, like the Thracians, with their mouths wide open—*Threïcid amystidè.* Horat. lib. i. od. 36."

* French money passes at Figueras, with the trifling loss of about a *real* (2½d.) in a louis d'or. Travellers should take care to change their French money here for Spanish; as, the further they advance into the kingdom, the greater is the loss incurred by the exchange.

was built near Figueras, at an immense expense. It stands on a little eminence, commanding the whole plain, and is reckoned one of the finest fortifications in Europe. It bears the name of the castle of *San Fernando.* The form is an irregular pentagon. The walls are of freestone and very thick, the moats deep and wide, and the approaches mined. The principal cordon is not seen from without. The ramparts, magazines, stables, cellars, caserns, and hospitals are defended by a casemate; and the firm, bare rock on which it is built, has been turned to so great advantage, that trenches can scarcely be opened on any side, the ground being every where stony. It will serve as an intrenched camp of from 16 to 17,000 men. The French, in their late wars with Spain, have always got possession of it by stratagem;* a striking illustration of the remark, that such fortresses are better adapted to overawe a turbulent population, or to protect the borders of a kingdom from the incursions of barbarous hordes, than to serve as a defence against invasion.

From Figueras to Gerona is a distance of seven leagues, over an undulating country. About half-way, the road passes over the high mountain of *La Cuesta Regia*, the base of which is composed of a sort of pudding-stone, on which is superposed schist. Limestone reappears between Figueras and the *Col del Oriols.*

* "Political motives," says Laborde, "the discussion of which does not belong to our subject, caused it to be reduced in the last war: but the event was not attended with any impeachment of the Spanish valour. In the council-room of the fortress there are still to be seen spots of ink occasioned by the rage of an officer, who threw his pen and ink against the wall, refusing to sign the capitulation, or in his fury at having been obliged to sign it. The walls have since then been whitened; but through negligence, or by chance, the honourable spot still appears!"

Beyond that pass, the road descends to the bridge thrown over the *Ter*, near which a considerable number of houses ranged in two lines, form a sort of suburb to Gerona. In all the villages on this road, the people are mostly employed in making ropes, baskets, and shoes of a small rush or reed, called *esparto* (*juncus ?*).

Gerona (*Gerunda*) is delightfully situated on the declivity and at the foot of a steep mountain. The *Ter* runs through the town, watering the rich valley which opens to the S.W. It is an episcopal city, and formerly gave the title of prince to the eldest son of the King of Aragon. It is famous for the different sieges which it has sustained, and for the brave defence which it has always made.* The town is nearly of a triangular form. The streets are narrow and gloomy, but the houses are tolerably well built.† The churches, Swinburne says, are darker than caverns. The inhabitants lead a melancholy, undiversified kind of life: they have no theatre, no public amusements, no common rendezvous. Every one seems to live alone. The population is above 14,000, one-fourth of whom are priests, monks, nuns, and students. They carry on very little trade. The only manufactories are a few looms for weaving coarse woollen and cotton stuffs and stockings, which have been established in the asylum within the last twenty years. The cathedral and the collegiate church are the two most remarkable edifices in Gerona. The former is built on the

* In the succession war, it distinguished itself by its faithful adherence to the Archduke Charles, and its desperate defence against his successful rival. After it had fallen, the Catalans blockaded it for eight months.

† Mr. Townsend says, the whole city seems to be built of the pudding-stone.

ridge of the mountain, which gives it a very elevated foundation; it displays a majestic front at the top of three grand terraces, ornamented with granite balustrades. The ascent to it is by a superb flight of steps, eighty-one in number, and of a breadth the whole extent of the church. The front is decorated in bad taste with three orders of architecture, Doric, Corinthian, and Composite, and flanked with two hexagon towers. The interior is large and handsome; it has only a nave in the Gothic style. The high altar is insulated, and consists of a pavilion, supported by four pillars of mixed marble. The pavilion, the tabernacle, and the steps are of silver, ornamented with precious stones and raised figures. The monuments of Raymond Berenger, Count of Barcelona, and of the Countess Mahault, or Mahalta, his consort, are placed against the wall of the sanctuary. The treasury of this church was formerly very rich, consisting of chalices, patins, vestments, staves, crosses, shrines, relics, censers, lamps, candlesticks, and other articles of gold and silver, set with jewels, which afforded a rich spoil to the French, on their gaining possession of Gerona. The collegiate church of San Felice (formerly Sta. Maria *extra muros*) is of Gothic architecture, consisting of a nave and two aisles divided by pillars. There is a very high and ancient tower in front of the façade. There is a very curious piece of architecture in the Capuchin convent,—an Arabian bath of elegant construction, consisting of columns standing on an octagon stylobate, encircling a reservoir. About a mile from Gerona, there is a Benedictine nunnery, into which only ladies who can bring proof of their nobility are admitted. But in the seminary of the Beguine nuns, *poor girls are gratuitously instructed. The university of Gerona, founded in the year 1521,*

by Philip II., was abolished in 1715, by Philip V. At that time, the Jesuits had all public instruction in their hands, except two chairs of philosophy and theology. At the suppression of that order, the public instruction was concentrated in one college, where 900 students were taught the Latin grammar, rhetoric, philosophy, and theology. The library of the Jesuits was left. It is a very extensive and well-chosen one, and is open to the public. There are, besides, three other chairs, supported at the expense of the town.

At the commencement of the Peninsular war, Gerona was surrounded with old walls in good repair, and had, besides, four forts with redoubts upon the high ground above it; but its principal defence was the citadel of *Monjuiz*, a square fort, in length about 720 feet on each side, with four bastions, and four outworks, which commanded it from an eminence about sixty fathoms distant. The population of the city amounted at this period to between 13 and 14,000 souls. The history of the siege which it sustained from the French, equals in interest almost any event that occurred during the whole war; and though it does not strictly fall within the design of our work, the reader will readily pardon the length of the digression. We avail ourselves of Dr. Southey's narrative.

General Duhesme had laid siege to Gerona in July 1808, with an army of 11,000 men; but the place was seasonably relieved, and the enemy defeated by Caldagues. On the 6th of May, 1809, the French again appeared upon the heights of *Casa Roca* and *Castaroja*, and began to form lines around without opposition. A battery of eleven mortars was planted upon Casa Roca, from whence it commanded the city. Works were also erected against Monjuiz. The garrison,

consisting only of 3,400 men, were not numerous enough to impede these operations. No precautions, however, were wanting on their part, nor were any means of defence omitted. The citizens, like the crusaders of old, took the cross, and eight companies of 100 men each, were formed and organised. The women also, maids and matrons alike, enrolled themselves in an association, called the company of Santa Barbara, to perform whatever they were capable of, like their countrywomen at Saragossa. Their governor, Camp-marshal Don Mariano Alvarez, forbade all persons from speaking of capitulation or peace under pain of death. The garrison and people received this edict with acclamations of applause.

When the French had completed their lines, they sent a flag of truce, requiring Alvarez to spare himself and the city the dreadful consequences of a resistance. He admitted the officer to his presence, and bade him say to his general, that, for the future, no more flags of truce need be sent, as he was determined to have no other communication with him than at the cannon's mouth. This was on the 12th of June. On the night between the 13th and the 14th, about an hour after midnight, the bombardment began. The alarm was beat; the aged and children, roused from their sleep, repaired to the cellars and other places of security; and the female company of Santa Barbara hastened to their posts. A sally was made early on the 17th, against some works, supposed to be the base of a battery against the *Puerto de Francia*. They succeeded in their object; but the success was of little importance, and dearly purchased. Many brave men fell, and 110 were brought back wounded. The bombardment continued; and among the other buildings which it reduced to ashes, the military hospital was destroyed

The hospitals of San Domingo and San Martin were also rendered uninhabitable. Thus, the labour and difficulty of providing for the sick and wounded increased with their numbers. About the end of the month, an epidemic affection of the bowels became very prevalent, and in July, a bilious fever, usually endemic in Gerona.

The main attacks of the enemy were directed against Monjuiz. Their tremendous artillery soon rendered the outworks untenable, though every foot of ground was defended with a heroism unexampled in modern times, except at Saragossa. At the beginning of July, three batteries played upon three sides of this little fortress. That planted against the north front, consisted of twenty four-and-twenty-pounders. While the French were battering it, that angle on which the flag was hoisted, fell into the ditch. Don Mariano Montorro descended for it in the midst of the fire, brought it up in safety, and replanted it on the wall. The fire of the garrison had ceased, for they perceived that the French were secured by their trenches. The enemy judging from this silence that the courage or ammunition of the besieged had failed, in the night between the 4th and 5th, assaulted the breach. It was for this that the garrison had reserved their fire, and they poured it so destructively, that the French retreated with great loss. For three days, they continued their fire upon the breach. Between two and three on the morning of the 8th, 6,000 men assaulted it; at the same time, the town was bombarded. The enemy advanced, filled the fosse, and proceeded to the breach. A mortar, which lay hidden among the ruins of the ravelin, and which discharged 500 musket-balls at every shot, was played off upon the enemy by Don Juan Candy. The havoc which it

made was tremendous. After thrice attempting in the course of the day to win the breach, the enemy retreated, leaving 1,600 of their number slain. The tower, however, of San Juan, which stood between the west curtain of the castle and the city, was blown up, the magazine, no one knew how, having taken fire. Those on the spot were buried in the ruins, twenty-three of whom were extricated alive amid the incessant fire which the enemy kept up upon the spot. The company of Santa Barbara distinguished themselves greatly that day: covered with dust and blood, under the burning heat of July, and through the incessant fire of the batteries and musketry, they carried water and wine to the soldiers, and bore back the wounded. The French from this time continued to batter the fortress on three sides, and stationed sharpshooters in the trenches on every side. So perilous now had the service become, that the sentinels were changed every half-hour. It became at length impossible to observe the operations of the enemy, so thick were their marksmen, and with so fatal precision did they take their aim. By the beginning of August, the besiegers had pushed their parallels to the edge of the fosse. The ravelin was the object at which they aimed. It was repeatedly attacked by night, but the assailants were always repulsed. It was now discovered that the enemy were mining. The French wished to destroy a breastwork which protected the gate of the castle, through which was the passage to the ravelin. The breastwork was blown up, leaving the gate exposed: a battery then kept playing upon it, which rendered the communication between the castle and the ravelin very difficult. A sally was made against this battery, and the guns were spiked. The French, however,

had artillery in abundance: other pieces were soon mounted, and the fire continued on the gate and ravelin. A covered way was also formed from their own parapet to the breach of the ravelin: by this, on the night between the 4th and 5th of August, they poured a sufficient body of troops through the breach, to overpower the forty men who were stationed there; but the musketry from the castle forced them to abandon the place they had won. It remained, therefore deserted, like a place left for the dead, who covered it.

All the guns of Monjuiz had now been silenced, and the enemy were so near, that the Spaniards knocked them down with stones. The garrison had held out thirty-seven days since a practicable breach was made; a week had elapsed since the ravelin was lost; and the three sides of the castle were in ruins. There was but little water left, and that was nauseous and unwholesome. The number of soldiers was every day diminished by disease, as well by the chances of war. On the evening, therefore, of the 11th, the besieged withdrew frem the ruins of Monjuiz into Gerona, every man taking with him two hand-grenades and as many cartridges as he could carry. Matches were left in the magazine, and the retreat was effected with the loss of but one man.

The French general, Verdier, assured his government, that the city could not now hold out longer than from eight to fifteen days. He little dreamed that his besieging army of 17,000 men, covered by another army of 18,000 under General St. Cyr, had yet a protracted resistance of five months to contend against. He planted a battery against the bulwark of San Pedro, and another on Monjuiz, commanding all the works in the plain, and the whole line of the city from

San Pedro to the tower of Gironella. Other batteries placed by San Daniel's Tower, commanded fort Calvary and one of its advanced posts. Meanwhile, 700 fresh troops were introduced into the place by Don Ramon Foxa and Don Jose Cantera. Alvarez now planted three cannon on the roof of the cathedral. A watch was kept upon the tower, to observe the movements of the enemy, and ring the alarm whenever an attack was about to be made. The sick were removed from the church, where they had been placed, to a safer quarter, by the company of Santa Barbara. At the end of August, breaches having been made, Alvarez declared in his general orders, that every foot of ground in the city should be defended. The contagion, however, increased, the magazines were exhausted, and famine began to be severely felt; yet, not a word of capitulation, not a thought of it was entertained. At this crisis, a convoy of 4,000 foot and 500 horse under General Garcia Conde, part of Blake's army, forced its way into Gerona, and 3,000 remained there. Conde, with the rest and the beasts of the convoy, accomplished his return as happily as his entrance. This seasonable supply, however, was small, only sufficient for fifteen days.

On the 18th of September, three great breaches having been made, which the French engineers declared to be all practicable, the French, in the evening, sent another flag of truce. Alvarez returned a verbal notice to the bearers of it to retire: they requested to be heard, but were ordered to withdraw from the walls on peril of their lives. They persisted in offering a letter, and then both the castle of the Constable and the tower of Geronilla fired. On the return of the officers, the enemies' batteries were again opened · all night, the firing was kept up, and the French troops

were collected on the heights of Campdura and Monjuiz for the assault. The next forenoon was employed in preparation. Between three and four o'clock, the watch on the cathedral apprised Alvarez, that troops were descending from Monjuiz to San Daniel; and the like notice was received from the forts of the Constable and the Capuchins. A second report from the cathedral announced that the enemy was advancing from all parts to the breaches, many of them with sapping instruments. The *somaten*, or alarm-bell, was now rung from the cathedral, and the *generala* was beaten. Two thousand men came on straight from Monjuiz, an equal number from between that place and San Daniel, and as many from San Miguel; at the same time, a movement of troops was observed in the woods of Palau. They advanced against the *Puerto de Francia*, and the forts *Calvary* and *Cabildo*. It was not without surprise that they found the Geronians prepared to receive them at all points. Nasch, the defender of Monjuiz, had his post at the *quartel de Alemanes*, where one of the principal breaches was made; Colonel Marshall, an Englishman, was at the breach of Santa Lucia; a company of crusaders, all clergy, were stationed at the breach of San Christoval; the rest of the garrison, crusaders, and all the townsmen, manned the walls. The excellent company of Santa Barbara were distributed among the difficult posts, and all the other women were invited by proclamation to assist them in this important hour. At the *quartel de Alemanes*, the enemy mounted the breach, and succeeded in forcing their way into the first quadrangle of that great building. The French batteries continued to play upon the walls and the buildings adjoining the breach; and a huge fragment fell upon those who were fore-

most in the assault, just as part of the Ultonia regiment were about to charge them: a few Spaniards were buried with them among the ruins. The Geronans then rushed on, drove back the enemy, and fought hand to hand with the assailants. Four times the assault was renewed in the course of two hours; and at every point the enemy were withstood and beaten off. Alvarez was every where. He had prepared cressets to light up the walls and breaches in case of another attack after darkness closed; but the foe withdrew long before night in the utmost disorder, leaving behind him 800 of his best men slain. Of the besieged, 44 fell, and 197 were wounded. Our brave countryman, Colonel Marshall, died of his wounds.

Ten days had now elapsed since the supplies were introduced, which were only sufficient for fifteen days' consumption; and there remained neither wine nor bread. A scanty mess of pulse or corn, with a little oil or a morsel of bacon in its stead, was all that could be furnished; and this not from the magazines, but was given by the inhabitants, who shared their stores with the soldiers, lamenting that they had nothing better to bestow. The summer fever became more prevalent, and relief was now eagerly looked for. Great attempts were meantime made by Blake to succour the place. On the 26th of September, a firing was heard towards Los Angelos, and a strong body of the garrison sallied out to assist the convoy, conducted by Don Luis Wimpfen, who had the command of the advancing army. When they reached the heights of San Pelayo before La Bisbal, O'Donnel was sent forward with 1,000 men, who, breaking through the enemy, set fire to one of their encampments, and made way for 160 laden beasts, which entered safely through the *Puerto del Arenj*. This

small supply disappointed the hopes of the besieged. The scarcity of their provisions obliged them to diminish their numbers; and O'Donnel one night, after the moon was down, succeeded in cutting his way through five and twenty posts of the enemy, many of which he surprised and plundered, spreading alarm through the whole French lines.

Verdier was now superseded by Augereau, who took and burned the town of Hostalric, where magazines were collected for the relief of Gerona. All hope of further supply was now cut off from the besieged, who were carried off, chiefly by dysentery, from thirty-five to seventy a day. Augereau straitened the blockade, and drew his lines closer, to prevent escape or the possibility of introducing supplies into the city. He stretched cords with bells along all the interspaces, and kept watch-dogs at all the posts. The bombardment was continued, and always with greater violence during the night than the day. He found even means of sending letters into the city, relating his victory at Hostalric, describing the hopeless state of Blake's army, and threatening the most signal vengeance, if the besieged persisted in holding out. He offered to grant an armistice for a month, and suffer supplies to enter, provided Alvarez would capitulate at the end of that time, if the city were not relieved. But no selfish considerations could induce the Spaniards to listen to terms which would let loose so large a part of the besieging army as this armistice would have done for other operations.

Famine, however, did the enemy's work. The stores were all exhausted. The French endeavoured to tempt the garrison to desert, by holding out provisions to them. The out-sentinels frequently made a truce with each other, and laid down their arms, when the

French soldier would give his half-starved enemy a draught from his leathern bottle or brandy-flask; and after talking together, they returned to their several posts. There was something in this consoling to humanity, when contrasted with the street-fighting scenes of Saragossa. The only disgraceful circumstance which occurred in all this siege on the part of the Spaniards, was the desertion of ten officers in a body, two of whom were men of noble birth. They had plotted to make the governor capitulate, and, finding their intentions frustrated, they went over to the enemy in open day. Towards the end of November, many of the inhabitants, being utterly hopeless of relief, ventured to pass the enemy's lines, several of whom succeeded in doing so. At this time, Samaniego, the first surgeon of the garrison, delivered in to Alvarez a report of the state of health, adding, as he gave it into the hands of that noble Spaniard, something implying the melancholy nature of its contents. "This paper, then," said Alvarez, "will inform posterity of our sufferings, should there be none left to recount them." He then bade Samaniego read it. It was a dreadful report. There did not remain a single house uninjured by the bombardment. The people slept in cellars, vaults, and holes amid the ruins; and the wounded were often killed in the hospitals. The streets were broken up, so that the rains and the contents of the sewers stagnating there, occasioned pestilential vapours, rendered still more noxious by the dead bodies which lay rotting amid the ruins. The siege had now lasted seven months, and within the last three weeks, 500 of the garrison had died in the hospitals. A dysentery was raging and spreading; the sick were lying upon the ground without beds, and almost without food; and there

was scarcely fuel to dress the little wheat that remained and the few horses which were unslaughtered. The breaches, which had been assaulted ten weeks ago, were still open, and it was easier to defend than to repair them. A fourth had now been made, and the enemy, learning from the officers who had deserted, that the ammunition of the place was nearly expended, ventured upon bolder operations. They gained possession by night of the *Calle del Carmen*, commanding the bridge of San Francisco, the only means of communication between the old city and the post on the opposite side of the *Ter*, from whence also they could batter forts *Merced* and *San Francisco de Paula*. During another night, they got possession of fort Calvary, which they reduced to ruins, and of the redoubt *Cabildo*: the city redoubts fell next. The enemy were now close to the walls, and thus cut off the forts of the *Capuchins* and the *Constable*, the only two remaining outworks. The garrison of both amounted only to 160 men, with scarcely any powder, little water, and no food. These posts were of the last importance. It was resolved to make a sally for relieving them; and the garrison of the town gave up for this purpose their own miserable rations, contributing enough for the consumption of three days. The ration was at this time a handful of wheat a day, or sometimes the quarter of a small loaf instead, with five ounces of horse or mule's flesh every alternate day. The few men allotted for this service, or indeed who were equal to the task, sallied in broad day through the *Puerto del Socorro*, within pistol-shot of the redoubts which the enemy possessed. They were in three bodies, two of which hastened up the hill towards the two forts, while the third remained to protect them from being attacked in the rear from the

Calle del Carmen. The sally was so sudden, so utterly unlooked for by the besiegers, and so resolutely executed, that its purpose was accomplished, though with the loss of about forty men,—nearly a third of those employed in it. This was the last effort of the Geronians. The deaths increased in a dreadful and daily accelerating progression. The burial-grounds were without the walls; and hands could not be found to carry out the dead to the deposite-house, where 120 bodies were lying at once uncoffined, in sight of all who passed the walls. The besiegers were now erecting one battery more in the *Calle de la Pulla*, close upon one of the breaches, and commanding the whole space between forts Merced and San Francisco de Paula. Such was the state of things, when, on the 4th of December, Alvarez was seized with a nervous fever. On the 8th, it was so increased, that he became delirious; but a lucid interval occurred, in which he resigned the command. During the night a council was held, composed of the two juntas, military and civil, at which it was resolved to treat for a capitulation. The whole of the 10th was employed in adjusting the terms. The garrison were to march out with the honours of war, and to be sent prisoners to France, to be exchanged as soon as possible for an equal number of French prisoners, then detained in Majorca and other places. None were to be considered prisoners but those who were ranked as soldiers: the commissariat, intendants, and medical staff were thus left at freedom. The French were not to be quartered upon the inhabitants; the official papers were neither to be destroyed nor removed; no person was to be injured for the part he had taken during the siege; those who were not natives of Gerona, and the natives also who chose to depart, should be at liberty to leave the place, and to take

with them all their property, or dispose of it as they pleased.

While the capitulation was going on, many of the enemy's soldiers came to the walls, bringing provisions and wine to be drawn up by strings,—an honourable proof of the respect with which they regarded their brave opponents. During the night, the deserters who were in Gerona, with many soldiers and peasants, attempted to escape. Some succeeded, others were killed or taken in the attempt, and not a few dropped with weakness on the way. To those who remained, the very silence of the night, it is said, was a thing so unusual, that it became a cause of agitation. At day-break, it was found that the soldiers had broken the greatest part of their arms, and thrown the fragments into the streets or the river. When the garrison was drawn up in sight of the French, their shrunken limbs, hollow eyes, and pale and meagre countenances sufficiently manifested by what they had been subdued. The French observed, not without admiration, that, of the artillery of the city, as well as of Monjuiz, most of the guns had been fired so often, that they were rendered useless. Brass itself had given way, says Samaniego, before the constancy of the Geronans.*

There are two roads from Gerona to Barcelona. The post-road, which is inland, is the worst, but the shortest, a distance of sixteen Spanish leagues. The inns on this road are very bad, and frequented only by muleteers. The only place on this road which deserves notice is Hostalrich, where there is a modern fortress that commands the outlet of a desert country. Mr. Swinburne, who took this road, says, that great

* Edinb. An. Reg. 1809, chap. 32.

part of it lies through the most savage wilds in nature. "Nothing but mountains upon mountains, covered with pines." A rambling, sandy river fills up the hollows, winding through all the hanging woods and narrow dells. There is a pass called *El Purgatorio*, so narrow as scarcely to admit a carriage between the rocks; and the road generally, he says, is as bad as any of the cross roads that were in Sussex. The prospects, however, on either hand, he says, are for the most part delightful. Gothic steeples are seen towering above the dark pine groves; and he mentions especially, the bold ruins of La Rocca, and the rich fields on the banks of the Besos.

The other road is by the sea-side; the distance seventeen leagues and a quarter. It is at first very broad, but, passing over a light soil without substance, is very muddy in winter, and dusty in summer; besides being cut at all times into deep ruts. As it approaches the river La Tordera, it becomes still worse, and sometimes dangerous. The soil is then softer; the road grows narrower, and is frequently covered with pools of water. Almost the whole country is uncultivated; but the mountains are clothed with perpetual verdure, abounding with the elegant arbutus, and a rich variety of flowering shrubs and aromatic herbs. The Tordera is crossed by a bad wooden bridge. It may often be forded without difficulty; but after rain it becomes an impetuous torrent, inundating the neighbouring country, and cannot be crossed even in boats till the swell begins to subside. From the impatience of passengers to proceed, it has sometimes happened, that, in the mid-current, the boat has been carried away and upset by the rapidity of the stream. Soon after crossing the Tordera, the road ascends a hill, which commands a view of the sea,

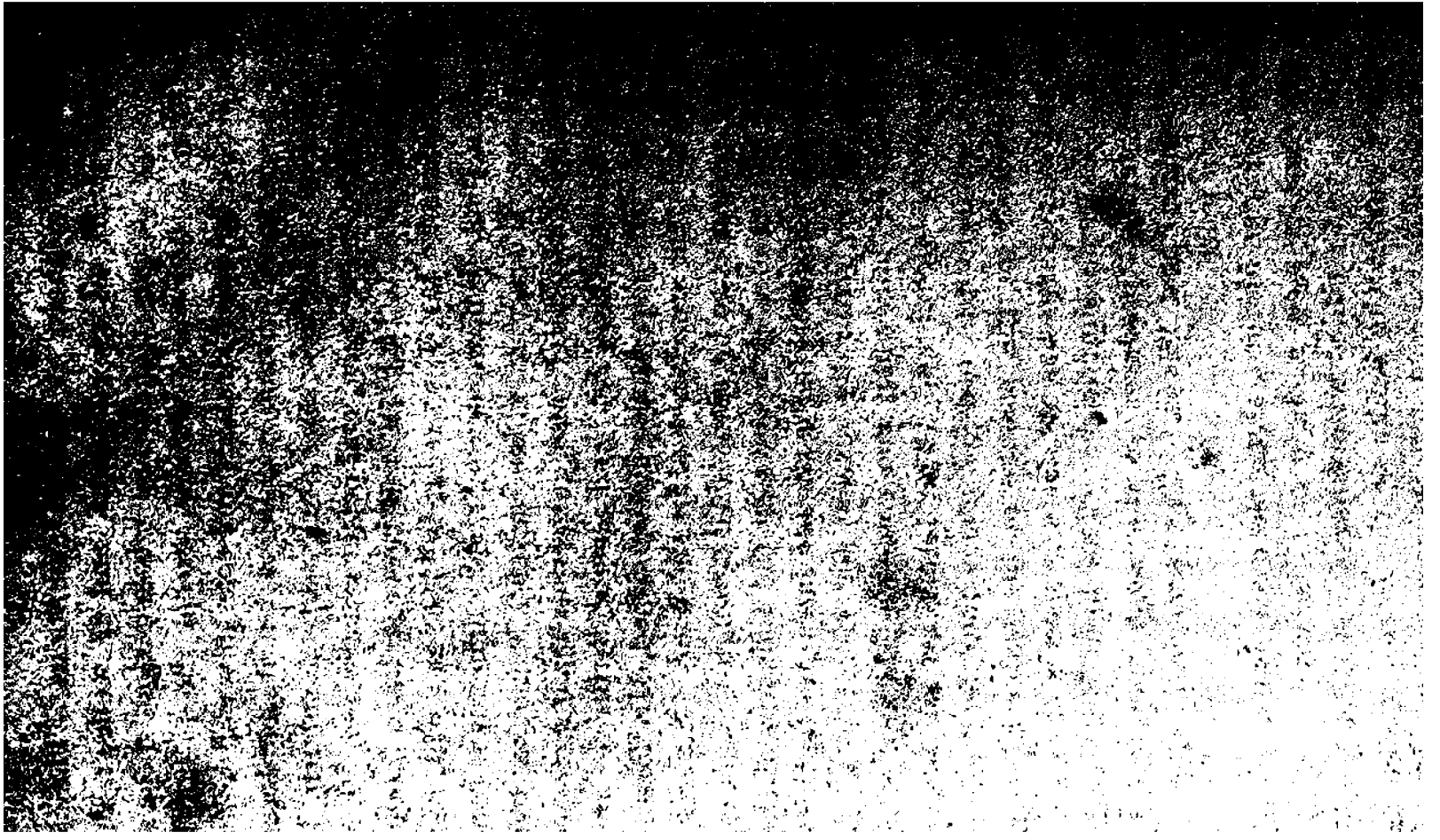
and numerous villages appear as far as the eye can reach. The little town of *Calella* stands in a charming situation, and is well built. It contains a parish-church, a monastery, a tolerable inn, a hospital, and several forges and distilleries, with about 2,400 inhabitants. Here the traveller comes close upon the sea, and does not again lose sight of it all the rest of the way to Barcelona. There is a constant succession of villages and houses all along the way. At *Arenez del Mar*, or *Santa Maria de Arenez*, a village containing 3,500 inhabitants, there is a beautiful church; also, a convent of Capuchins, manufactories of cotton, silk-stockings, and calico, a school for navigation, a forge for anchors, and a dock for building small vessels.

All these villages on the sea-coast have an air of neatness and comfort, and the activity of the inhabitants is every where apparent. The women and children are occupied in making lace and blond; the men are employed in fishing, navigation, and commerce. The coast is covered with small vessels and barks, which carry on a coasting trade with Roussillon, Spain, and Italy, and sometimes even venture across the Atlantic.

It is a distance of between four and five leagues from Calella to the sea-port of Mataro, the representative of a town which existed under the Romans, further inland, where many vestiges of its ancient buildings are still visible. The Moors rebuilt it on a smaller scale, on the spot which it now occupies, and enclosed it with walls, giving it the name which it now bears. It is conjectured to be the *Illuro* of Ptolemy and Pomponius Mela. The approach from Gerona is beautiful. The city (for it ranks as such) is pleasantly situated on the coast, at the extremity of a small, fertile plain, which terminated at

the foot of a chain of wooded mountains. The old town is built on an eminence, and is walled: the streets are narrow, though less crooked than those of the more ancient Spanish towns, except the principal one, which is broad, straight, and tolerably well built, and has a small stream running down it, bordered with trees. The new town, originally a suburb, is much larger, more open, and better constructed. The population, which, in 1770, was between 4 and 5,000, and is stated by Mr. Townsend, in 1786, at 9,679, had risen, in 1808, to upwards of 25,000. The town contained several churches, three convents of monks, two of nuns, and a hospital; also, numerous manufactories of silks, calicoes, lace, &c., and several distilleries and tan-yards. The place is also distinguished, Mr. Townsend says, by the excellence of its red wine. Scarcely an idle person is to be seen. All through Catalonia, indeed, you admire at every step the industry of the inhabitants, who, working early and late, give fertility to a soil which naturally, except for vines, is most unproductive; but when you come to Mataro, you are perfectly enchanted. The farms are so many gardens, divided into beds of about four feet wide, with a channel for the passage of the water to each bed, and every farm has its *noria*, a species of chain-pump of extreme simplicity. The light soil, thus rendered fertile, produces on the same spot, corn, wine, oranges, and olives. The American aloe is planted as a fence.

The road from Mataro, along the coast, is excellent. On the right is seen a chain of hills, covered with evergreens, and studded with villages. A thick wood of poplars clothes the banks of the *Bezos*, which is usually crossed by a ford, but is frequently rendered impassable by the rains. It then suddenly swells and



Engd on Steel
THE PORT OF BARCELONA

overflows; and what renders its passage still more dangerous, is, that it is apt to form quicksands.* After passing the small forest of poplars on the opposite bank, the road leads over a long, fertile plain, covered with trees of all kinds, and watered by numerous streams. A beautiful avenue of nut-trees commences about a league from *Barcelona;* and on the right, numerous country-houses are seen, extending to the villages of *Sarria*, *Horta*, and *Gracia*, all three delightfully situated. The city now presents itself with a majestic appearance, its whole extent being seen; and, on the opposite side, rises the mountain of Monjuich, by which it is commanded.

BARCELONA,

With its fort Monjuich (or Monjuiz), is one of the strongest places in Europe; and Mr. Townsend speaks of it as "one of the most delightful cities in the world." The situation is beautiful; the air, Mr. Swinburne says, "equals in purity, and much excels in mildness, the boasted climate of Montpellier." It stands in a plain, bounded on the N.E. by an amphitheatre of hills, while, on the S.W., the mountain of Monjuich defends it from the unwholesome winds which blow over the marshes at the mouth of the Llobregat.† To the north, the coast projecting into the sea forms a noble bay, and the Mediterranean

* Mr. Townsend noticed, as he crossed this river, fifty felons, clothed in green, employed in clearing the channel. "It is curious," he remarks, "to observe this mark of contempt for the Moors, in clothing their vilest criminals, and even their hangman, in green, the sacred colour of Mohammedans."

† This river is the largest between the Ter, which runs by Gerona, and the Segre, which, rising in the Pyrenees, falls into the Ebro.

closes the prospect on the east. The form of the city is almost circular, being built round the old Roman town, which occupied a small eminence in the centre, where traces of the ancient walls and other remains are still visible. The sea has retired many hundred yards from the port-gates, and a whole quarter of the city, with its Gothic church, stands upon the sands that were once the bottom of the harbour. The immense quantities of sand brought down from the granite mountains by the rivers, and carried into the sea, are thrown back into the harbour by the current and southerly winds, and have formed a dangerous bar. Swinburne mentions, that a company of Dutch and English adventurers had offered to bring the river into the port by means of a canal, on condition of being allowed a free importation for ten years; but the proposal was rejected. "The port is handsome; the mole, which is all of hewn stone, is a master-piece of solidity and convenience. Above is a platform for carriages; below, vast magazines, with a broad quay reaching from the city-gates to the lighthouse." For this, as well as for various other important benefits, Barcelona is indebted to the patriotic Marques de la Mina, Captain-general of Catalonia, who died in 1768. Besides cleansing and beautifying the city, he laid the foundations of the town of Barcelonetta on the neck of land which runs out into the sea, to the S.E. of the city, where formerly there stood only a few fishermen's huts. "As the land was given *gratis*, the houses were soon run up on a regular plan; a ground-floor and one story above, with three windows in front, and a pediment over them; the whole consisting of four and twenty regular streets, twenty-five feet in breadth, intersecting each other at right angles, and forming a perfect square." In its parochial church,

dedicated to San Miguel, the ashes of its founder are deposited under "a tasteless monument." Another of La Mina's improvements is, the rampart or great walk upon the walls, extending the whole length of the harbour. It is built upon arches, with magazines below, and a broad coach-road and foot-path above. The citadel, built by Philip V. after he had reduced the Catalonians, occupies a large extent of ground, where formerly stood 600 houses, a church, and three convents. It has six strong bastions, but is calculated, as Swinburne remarks, "to overawe the inhabitants, at least as much as to defend them from a foreign enemy." For this purpose, indeed, it was built, and it is completely commanded by Monjuich. The lowness of its situation renders it, moreover, damp, unwholesome, and swarming with mosquitoes. Indeed, the atmosphere at Barcelona is always moist, but especially in winter and spring, and during the prevalence of easterly winds; owing to which circumstance, as Laborde supposes, the inhabitants are liable to scorbutic and catarrhal complaints. Bilious fevers also, he tells us, prevail in summer; and yet he adds, "the inhabitants are generally healthy enough."

Barcelona is said to have been founded by the Carthaginians about 230 years B.C., and 300 years subsequently to the first establishment of the Carthaginians in Spain. It received its name, *Barcino*, in honour of their general, Hamilcar Barcas. They did not long retain possession of it, as we find the Ebro fixed as their boundary so early as the end of the first Punic war. After the fall of the Carthaginian commonwealth, the Romans made Tarraco their chief city in this part, and neglected Barcino, though they made it a colony by the name of Faventia. In the year 414, it fell, with the rest of Catalonia, to the lot

of the Gothic chief, Ataulph, and remained under the dominion of the Goths till A.D. 714, when it was forced to submit to a Saracen conqueror. Tarragona being now no better than a heap of ruins, Barcelona became imperceptibly the capital. Lewis the Debonair, son of Charlemagne, recovered it from the Moors, A.D. 805,* and it was governed by viceroys appointed by the French till A.D. 874, when, during the reign of Charles the Bald, it became, either by royal grant or by force of arms, an independent earldom. For more than a century, the Barcelonans were engaged in incessant struggles with the Moors,† but ultimately maintained their independence till the annexation of the principality of Catalonia to the crown of Aragon in the twelfth century. The inhabitants of Marseilles appear to have carried on a considerable trade with these provinces at a very early period; but Barcelona is said to have derived the commercial spirit which it has always retained, from the Jews. Here it was that Ferdinand and Isabella received Columbus on his first return from the New World; and from this port, that illustrious and ill-requited navigator sailed on his second expedition in the year 1493.

In no city of Spain has the heroic and invincible spirit displayed by the Spaniards in the defence of their towns, been more frequently put to the test, than

* Under the Moors, Barcelona held out against the besieging army of Louis, King of Aquitaine, for seventeen months, and was not taken till its walls and most of its buildings were destroyed, and one-half of its inhabitants had perished in the conflict or with famine.

† In 985, the city was taken by Almanzor, King of Cordova, six days after a victory over the Catalonian army, and was set on fire, almost all the inhabitants being led away captive. It was soon after retaken by Count Borel.

in the Catalonian capital. Alike under the Moors and against them, its citizens have been distinguished by this spirit. In 1462, it sustained a siege from John II., King of Aragon, whose sovereignty it refused to acknowledge. In 1472, that monarch again laid siege to it with a superior force, but did not take it till after a siege of six months. In 1640, it again raised the standard of revolt against Philip IV.; but, having held out against all his efforts to reduce it for twelve years, was at last taken in 1652, after a blockade and siege of ten months. It again resisted Charles II. in 1689, but was subdued by force of arms. In the Succession war, it became again the scene of repeated conflicts. In 1697, it was besieged by the French under the Duke de Vendome, and, though defended by a garrison of 12,000 men under the Prince of Darmstadt, capitulated fifty days after the trenches were opened, the army which attempted to relieve the place having been defeated. In this instance, however, it is observable, that a Spaniard was not the commander. The French were masters of the city, when, in 1706, the Earl of Peterborough arrived upon the coast with comparatively a handful of troops. After remaining for some time before the city, he re-embarked his little army, to the great joy of the besieged, as if preparing to sail; but in the night, he again landed, and before morning got possession of Monjuich. In a few days more, he was master of the city. "Gerona, Tarragona, Tortosa, and Lerida followed the example of the capital, and declared for Charles. Wherever the Earl of Peterborough turned his arms, victory declared for him. It was sufficient for him to shew himself, and every city offered him its keys. While he was in Valencia, the enemy (Philip V. in person) laid siege to Barce-

lona; but he hastened to its relief, and compelled them to retire not only from before the city, but out of the province, although he had only a few troops, and they had 30,000 men. When he was superseded, a series of misfortunes too well known, hastened the fall of the archduke's dominions; and the citizens of Barcelona, after an obstinate resistance, opening their gates to Philip, submitted, though reluctantly, to bear the yoke."*

The particulars of this last siege, which they sustained, in 1713 and 1714, against the united forces of France and Spain, after they had been deserted alike by the Archduke Charles, and by the English at the inglorious peace of Utrecht, deserve to be recorded. All the other towns of Catalonia had submitted to Philip; yet, Barcelona persisted in its resistance. "Efforts of courage," says Laborde, "feats of heroism worthy of the finest ages of Rome, were here displayed. The inhabitants, left to themselves, without troops, without a garrison, dared to brave large and warlike armies, commanded by celebrated generals. Exploits of the most heroic nature were performed by common tradesmen. The students of the university formed themselves into battalions, which were long invincible. Priests and monks were seen, with a sword in one hand and a crucifix in the other, running from rank to rank, animating the soldiers, and confirming their courage; and capuchins, with their habit tucked up, and their beards tied with ribbons, were observed alternately blessing, loading, and firing the cannon. Women running on the breach, mixed with the combatants, striking as good blows as the soldiers amid whom they fought. The Duke of

* Townsend, vol. i. p. 160.

Berwick redoubling his efforts, carried the bastion of S. Clara, in the plain now occupied by the citadel. It was bathed with the blood of the French nobility. The besieged returning to the charge, again made themselves masters of it. Again repulsed, they beheld their ramparts demolished by cannon-balls; and yielding at length to numbers, they retreated in good order into the town, where they found a new theatre for their courage. The streets became the field of battle, where contest after contest took place. When beaten, they fell back only to renew the charge. Berwick offered them their lives, but still they would not surrender. Midnight did not put a stop to the conflict, and when daylight appeared, it revealed the horrors which the night had enveloped in darkness. Blood every where ran in streams; the streets were heaped with dead; and yet, the Barcelonans continued to fight, and the women, from the tops of the houses, threw down upon the assailants showers of stones, beams, and burning brands. Berwick then ordered the houses to be set on fire; and not till they saw the flames ascending, the citizens surrendered to the conqueror on the 13th of September, 1714, still retaining their hatred and their pride."

Thus fell this proud city, which had so often raised its head against powerful princes. The citizens saw their standards burnt by the executioner, and their privileges abolished as a punishment for what was termed their rebellion.

The different limits of Barcelona at the various periods of its history, are still perceptible. The town formerly extended only to *La Rambla;* but it covered the area now occupied by the citadel. The streets, at least those within the old limits, are for the most part narrow and crooked; but in the new town, beyond

La Rambla, there are some which are broad and handsome. All the streets are paved with square, flat stones, which, however, are often suffered to sink and form inequalities where carriages pass. A common sewer runs under most of the streets in the old limits, which is covered in with long, narrow stones, so badly put together, as to admit of an unwholesome exhalation from this sink in summer. The streets are tolerably well lighted at night; but long before daybreak every lamp is out. The houses are plain, but lofty: they run from four to five stories high, having large windows, ornamented with balconies. Two-thirds of the town have been built within the last thirty years. On the fronts of most of the houses, there are paintings in fresco. Every trade has its particular district. The public buildings consist of the cathedral, 32 churches, 26 monasteries, 18 nunneries, 6 hospitals, the governor's palace, the hotel of the deputies, the custom-house, and the exchange; and there are several good inns.

The civil wars of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, the five sieges which Barcelona sustained in the space of sixty-two years, together with the consequent decline of its manufactures, and the stagnation of its immense commerce, had so much diminished its population, that in 1715, after the siege of the preceding year, the number of its inhabitants was reduced to 37,000.* In 1759, it contained, in nearly 14,000 families, 69,585 individuals. In 1778, in 16,608 families, 84,870 persons. In 1786, in 20,128 families, 94,880 persons; exclusive of 5,628 troops, who formed the garrison, 1,212 monks, 654

* In A.D. 1464, the population is stated to have been 40,000; in 1657, 64,000. During the political convulsions, the emigration was great, and the assassinations, it is said, innumerable.

nuns, 1,216 secular priests and official persons, 4,380 in the hospitals, prisons, and asylums, and 3,440 foreigners; total 111,410.* In 1798, the city contained 130,000 inhabitants, not reckoning the population beyond the ramparts, which is considerable. According to Laborde, in 1808, Barcelona contained 20,508 families in 10,767 houses: the number of inhabitants, therefore, reckoning 10,000 for Barcelonetta, and 10,000 for the garrison and foreigners, could not be under 130,000. These calculations are but approximations to a correct estimate. The present population is probably not under 150,000.

Some of the public buildings are not undeserving of the attention of the lovers of the arts, either for their exterior beauty or for their internal decorations. The architecture of the cathedral is "a light Gothic." It was built in the thirteenth century, but has never been finished: the portal yet remains to be erected, and there is a good reason why it should not be begun. "For upwards of three hundred years, a duty has been imposed on marriage-licenses granted by the ecclesiastical court, the produce of which is professedly assigned to the building of this portal." The whole appearance of this church is majestic. Its length is 160 feet, its breadth 62. The nave and aisles are separated by twelve large clusters of columns of various sizes. The aisles turn and meet behind the sanctuary. In the middle of the space between the great door and the choir, there is a large octagon dome, of Gothic architecture. In the sanctuary are two sepulchral urns, of wood, containing the ashes of Raymond Berenger, Count of Barcelona, and of his countess, the founders of this church; and under the sanctuary

* Townsend, vol. i. p. 137.

is a subterraneous chapel, where the relics of Sta. Eulalia, patroness of the town, are preserved in a superb shrine. The stalls of the choir are neatly carved and hung with escutcheons of princes and noblemen, among which Mr. Swinburne noticed the arms of our Henry VIII. They are the armorials of the knights who composed the order of the Golden Fleece, when Charles I. held a chapter here of that order, in the year 1509. This last-mentioned Traveller speaks of the architectural ornaments of the cloisters as "inimitably airy;" and of the double arches under the belfry as "deservedly admired, on account of their bearing on their centres the whole weight of two enormous towers." The subterranean chapel is very handsome. The other chapels are remarkable only for some paintings by Emanuel Tramullas and Antonio Viladomat, a native of Barcelona. The treasury is fine, but not equal in magnificence to those of many other churches in Spain. In the cloisters are kept, Mr. Swinburne says, various kinds of foreign birds, (Laborde says, geese only,) upon funds bequeathed for that purpose by a wealthy canon. This singular endowment is said to be of considerable antiquity.

The church of the convent of *La Merced* has a façade of two stories, composed of two orders of architecture, the Corinthian and the Ionic, while its portal is of the Doric order. The cloister is superbly executed: it is sixty feet square, and has a piazza running round it, supported by Doric columns of dark grey marble; over this piazza is a gallery, ornamented with double Ionic columns, of white grey marble. In the centre of the area is an octagon fountain of white marble. Altogether, the appearance of this cloister is very striking.

The church of the convent of San Francisco, be-

longing to the Cordeliers, is large and handsome. Several princes and princesses of the house of Aragon are buried there. The cloister is ornamented with twenty-five paintings, representing the particulars of the life of St. Francis, all painted by Viladomat.

The convent of the Dominicans, dedicated to Sta. Catalina, has a large church, consisting of a nave without aisles, built of freestone. The chapel of San Raymundo has a dome ornamented with fresco paintings. That of Our Lady of the Rosary is remarkable for a profusion of sculpture, ornaments, and gilding. Among the decorations is a good picture of the descent of the Holy Ghost by Viladomat; and the altar is adorned by a fine statue of the Virgin in white marble, executed at Rome. In this convent there is a Gothic cloister, planted in the middle with orange-trees; two of its sides are ornamented with sepulchral urns, tombs, and marble statues; and on the walls are upwards of 500 records of sentences passed on heretics, specifying their age, occupation, place of abode, time of condemnation, and whether burned in person or in effigy. Most of them were women. Under each inscription is a portrait of the heretic, some half, others three-parts devoured by the devils, their bodies being seen in the midst of the flames. The first inscription is dated in the year 1488; the last in 1728. A long inscription placed over one of the doors of the cloister, states, that the monuments of the punishment of the condemned were formerly deposited in this place, but, that these having been almost destroyed by the injuries of time and the ravages of war, especially during the siege of Barcelona in 1713, the holy office had supplied their place by this representation, which was put up in 1745. This inscription moreover states, that 365 bombs had fallen into this convent.

The parish-church of St. Mary of the Sea, built in the middle of the fifteenth century, is the handsomest and most regular in Barcelona. It has a nave and two aisles, separated by lofty arcades delicately formed. The high altar is a prodigious assemblage of white, black, and mixed marbles; but this richness is injured by carvings on wood in bad taste. This church contains five pictures of the Passion by Viladomat.*

The Hotel of the Deputies, where the states of Catalonia formerly met, and which is still used for the sittings of the royal audience, is accounted one of the finest buildings in Barcelona. Here are deposited the valuable charters and archives of the crown of Aragon; as also the treaties of peace, and the concessions granted to the various towns, corporations, and communities. The archives are kept in excellent order. In the interior of the *Hotel de Ville*, there are some Gothic columns and a variety of sculptures. The palace of the Counts of Barcelona and Kings of Aragon, is an antique edifice, near the cathedral. Its principal front looks on a square still called *Plaza del Rey*. One part of it is now occupied by the nuns of Santa Clara; another by the academy of medicine; and a third served for the Inquisition and its prisons. The

* "In visiting the churches of Barcelona," says Mr. Townsend, "an observation is confirmed, which had occurred even in the most contemptible of the villages south of the Pyrenees. It is evident, that all their decorations were invented about the beginning of the sixteenth century, after the gold and silver of America had been brought to Spain; and every altar-piece, with every column, shews that their improvement in taste did not keep pace with the increase of wealth. Hence, even the Composite and Corinthian pillars are loaded with new ornaments; and whether fluted or contorted, they are entwined with ivy or with vines, and are almost hidden by the multitude of angels fluttering round them, or by cherubs climbing up the branches; and the whole of this reposterous assemblage is covered with one glare of gold."

governor's palace, in the square of the same name, was built in 1444, at the expense of the town, as a market for cloths. The municipality turned it into an arsenal in 1514. Philip IV., in 1652, when he had reduced the Catalans, who had held out against him for twelve years, made it the residence of the viceroys of Catalonia. It is a large, regular, square building, with battlements at the top, and covered on the outside with bad paintings in fresco.

The Custom-house, which stands close to the sea-gate, is a modern building, finished in 1792. The front has two tiers of pilasters and columns; the lower of the Tuscan, the upper of the Doric order. It has three porticoes, faced with double columns of the Tuscan order; and a terrace runs round its four fronts. The pilasters, columns, and ornaments are only in stucco, to which the colours of different marbles are given. The windows have iron balconies, painted red. The whole betrays the extreme of bad taste. The Exchange (*Lonja*) is deemed the finest building in the town. The taste of its decorations corresponds to the nobleness and beauty of the structure; and the whole effect is majestic. It is 230 feet in length, by 77. The principal front, towards the square, has three entrances by large porticoes, ornamented with Doric columns, over which is a terrace with balustrades; beneath these is a handsome vaulted vestibule. The upper story rises from the terrace, and is adorned with four Ionic pilasters on the sides, and in the middle with six columns; between which there are three large windows. An attic, decorated with sculpture, completes the front, which is all of freestone. The inside is distributed into seven spacious halls, one of which is fitted up as a free nautical school, and

the others as an academy for the fine arts, free to all.*

The theatre is on the *Rambla*. The *façade* is small, crowded, and poor; but the interior is handsome, spacious, well laid out, and adorned with three rows of boxes of an elegant simplicity. Inside, it is the handsomest theatre in Spain.

In the school for surgery there is an amphitheatre for anatomy, large and tolerably well planned, but not lofty enough, and with too much bronze and gilding; a gallery runs round it. It contains a marble bust of Pedro Virgil, a Catalonian surgeon of the eighteenth century, who is regarded as the restorer of surgery in Spain, and was the principal promoter of its medical schools. This bust was put up in 1778, by the professors, as a testimony of gratitude.

The general hospital receives the sick of both sexes and foundlings.† The house for the convalescents is large, well distributed, and well aired. Indeed, the Spaniards excel, according to Laborde, in the arrangement, cleanliness, and management of their hospitals. The asylum is for all sorts of poor. The women there are employed in spinning, knitting, and making lace; the men, in carding hemp, wool, and cotton. The

* In this noble institution, Mr. Townsend counted, one night, upwards of 500 pupils.

† Mr. Townsend states the numbers received into this hospital in the year 1785, at 9,299; in 1786, 6,488. Of these, they buried nearly a ninth; but, "it must be considered," he adds, "that many are put into public hospitals, merely to save the expense of funerals." The foundlings amounted, on the average of the two years, to 528; of whom two-thirds died. "The boys on this foundation are bound apprentice when of a proper age. The girls, when marriageable, are conducted in procession through the streets, and any young man who sees one whom he would choose for a wife, is at liberty to mark her, which he does by throwing his handkerchief."

average number of paupers in the years 1784-5, was 1,400, of whom a thousand were able to work; the rest were children, or invalids, among whom, Mr. Townsend says, 300 were idiots: maniacs are perhaps intended.*

Barcelona had formerly a university, but it was suppressed at the beginning of the eighteenth century by Philip V., and the building, which is still called *Los Estudios*, is now converted into barracks. Since that period, there have been only private schools for

* Mr. Townsend mentions one institution at Barcelona of so singular a character, that we should hesitate to insert an account of it on authority less respectable. Attached to the Bridewell, or *real casa de galera*, but divided from it, is a royal house of correction (*real casa de correccion*), designed as a reformatory for "women who fail in their obligation to their husbands, and for those who either neglect or disgrace their families. The relation at whose suit they are taken into custody, pays three *sueldos* (4½*d.*) per day for their maintenance; and with this scanty provision they must be contented. Here they are compelled to work; and the produce of their labour is deposited for them till the time of their confinement (fixed by the magistrates) is expired. The whole building will contain 500 women; but at present (1786), there are *only* 113. Among these are some *ladies of condition, who are supposed to be visiting some distant friends.* Here they receive bodily correction, when it is judged necessary for their reformation. This establishment is under the direction and government of the *regente de la audiencia*, assisted by the two senior criminal judges, with the *alcayde* and his attendants. One of these judges conducted me through the several apartments, and from him I received my information. Among other particulars, he told me, that they had then under discipline, a *lady of fashion*, accused of drunkenness and of being imprudent in her conduct. As she was a widow, the party accusing was her brother-in-law, the Marquis of ——."—(TOWNSEND, vol. i. p. 128.) One is tempted at first to smile at the admirable idea of a penitentiary for ladies of fashion chargeable with indiscretion; but, in point of fact, the arbitrary and secret nature of this correctionary tribunal, which rests every thing on the character of the judges, and opens the door to such dreadful abuses, ranks it with the Star-chamber and the Inquisition. As Laborde does not mention it, it has probably ceased to exist.

theology and philosophy, kept by ecclesiastics, under the inspection of the bishop. Some private schools are also kept by the religious orders; and there is one in which mathematics, engineering, and fortification are taught.

There is an indifferent cabinet of natural history, and a museum, formed at the beginning of the last century, by a public-spirited apothecary of Barcelona, Don Jayme Salvador. It contains some Roman antiquities, sepulchral urns, vases, medallions, &c.; also, a good collection of Spanish marbles and minerals, a valuable collection of shells, and a fine herbal presented to Salvador by Tournefort, the famous botanist. There are two public libraries in the city, one belonging to the school for surgery, and the other to the Dominicans of Santa Catalina. The former consists wholly of works on surgery and medicine; the latter comprises scholastic and ascetic theology, jurisprudence (chiefly works on the canon law), the peripatetic philosophy, and history; there are few modern foreign books.* There are also four academies, maintained without either patronage or revenue, by the public spirit of the citizens; viz. one of jurisprudence, formed by the lawyers of Barcelona; one of practical medicine, which corresponds with the Royal Society of Medicine at Paris; one of natural philosophy, which possesses an apparatus and library presented to it by the Marquis of Llupia; and a fourth of history.

The Roman antiquities now remaining are few and

* Mr. Townsend mentions two other public libraries, those of the bishop's college and of the Carmelites; but they contained little worthy of notice. That of the Dominicans, he says, is not contemptible. One apartment is filled with books prohibited by the Inquisition; which, besides being under lock and key, are interspersed with representations of devils cracking the bones of the heretical authors.

inconsiderable. An amphitheatre occupied the space now covered with houses, between the street *Boquera* and the square of *La Trinidad*, which long retained the name of *Arenaria*; but no traces of it are now discernible. In the parish church of *San Miguel* are some remains of a mosaic pavement, composed of white and blue stones, representing two large figures of Tritons, with a sea-horse between them, and a serpent and dolphin on the sides. The church is supposed to have been originally a Roman temple, dedicated, according to the vulgar opinion, to Esculapius,—more probably to Neptune.

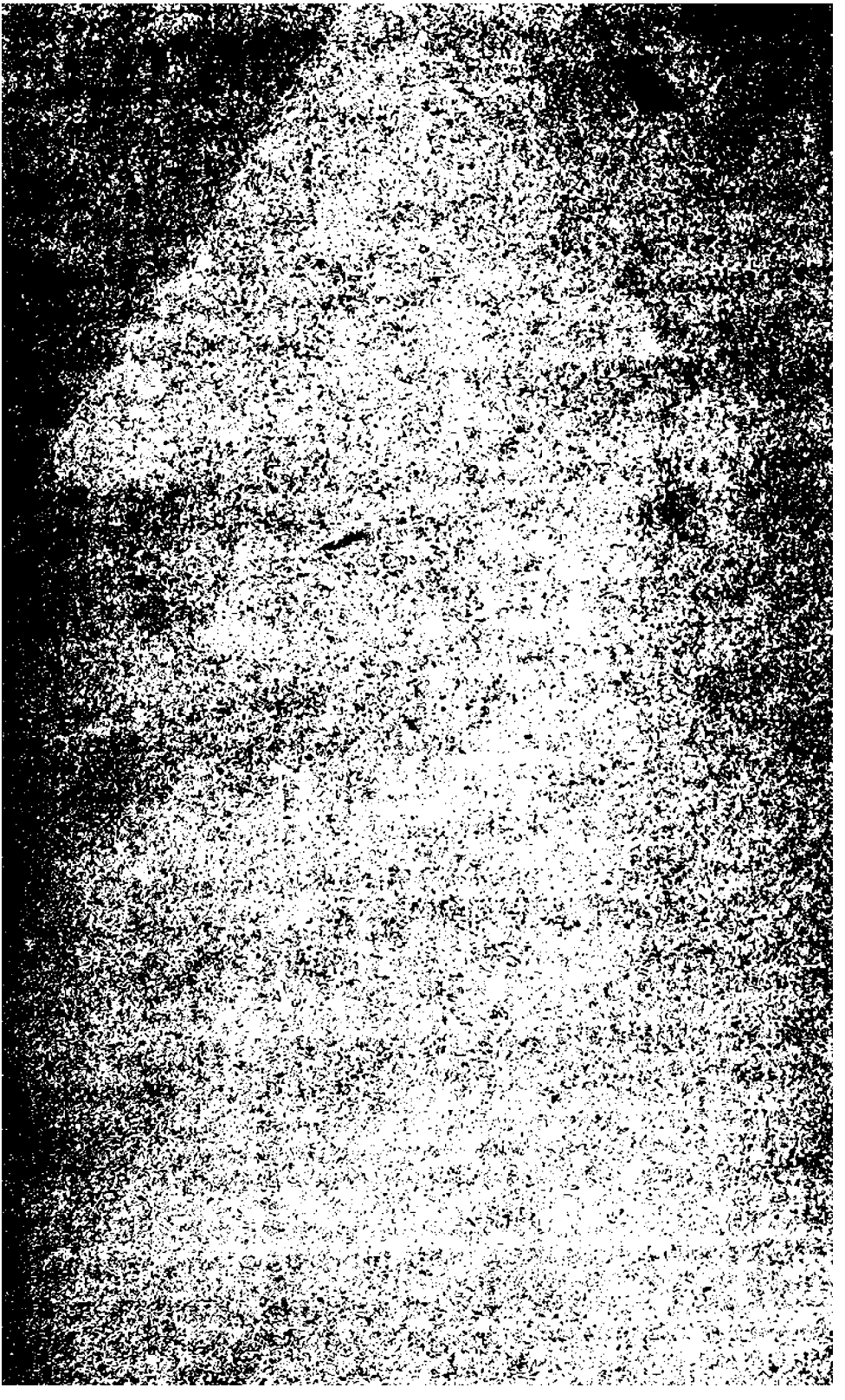
At the entrance of the street of the *Capellans*, there is a very lofty and massy arch, part of an aqueduct which seems to have run towards the cathedral. There is reason to believe that it brought the water from the mountain of *Colserola*, in the neighbourhood of Barcelona, where there are vestiges of an aqueduct.

The archdeaconry is supposed to have been the palace of the Roman prætor. "From the solidity of the walls, and the regularity of the work, I am inclined," says Swinburne, "to believe the tradition; but there is neither grandeur nor elegance to recommend it to notice; and some medallions and inscriptions fixed in the walls, apparently at the time of its erection, rather invalidate the idea of such remote antiquity." In the court-yard is a beautiful sarcophagus of white marble, which now serves as a cistern to a fountain. They call it, Swinburne says, "the coffin of Pompey's father." It is a parallelogram, rounded at the four corners; a large bas-relief runs round it, representing hunters, dogs, and wild beasts. The chief person is on horseback, bare-headed, and in a military dress. The figures and animals are in a masterly style. Some interesting remains of a superb

monument are found on an elevated spot behind the cathedral, which formed the centre of the ancient city. Six large fluted columns are still to be seen, with capitals of the Corinthian order, of white marble, twenty-nine feet ten inches high, including the bases and capitals, supported by pedestals from seven to eight inches. The plinths of the pedestals are of the greatest simplicity. The capitals have been injured; but the remains shew that they were wrought with taste and delicacy.

That there were baths in the ancient city, is indicated by the name still borne by the street, *Carrer del Bans* (Bath-street, in the Catalonian dialect; *Calle de los Banos*, in Spanish). A remarkable Moorish monument exists in this street, at the corner of the Boquera, consisting of several columns, rather misshapen, which support vaults in the shape of a horse-shoe. The court-walls of a house in the square of the *Cucurulla*, which are falling into ruins, are ornamented with many antique sculptures; such as medallions, some heads of emperors, and an unknown one with the inscription AUGUSTUS PATER, a little statue of Bacchus, without the head, but of exquisite workmanship, and a figure in bas-relief in a gallery over the court. This house, having been almost levelled to the ground by bombs during the siege, was deserted, and intruders broke in and carried off several of these antiques. It has recently been rebuilt.

The beauty of Barcelona is not a little increased by the spacious and airy promenade which runs round the city. The *Rambla* (or Gulley), a long, irregular street, forming a communication between the sea and land walls, was formerly the grand promenade; but the trees planted here about fifty years ago, did not thrive, and a new *alameda*, or esplanade, has been



formed, 444 yards in length, which is laid out in walks, with marble alcoves and fountains. The sea wall, which extends in a straight line from the sea-gate to the foot of Monjuich, communicating with the esplanade by a short street, forms also a superb terrace, about 380 fathoms in length, and 46 feet in breadth, and commanding a fine sea view. The port, which is merely a basin formed by piers,* is tolerably secure and well sheltered. Large ships, however, cannot pass the bar, on which there is only twelve feet water; and frigates cannot approach within half a league. A thousand ships of all rates and flags are computed, on the average, to enter the harbour annually;† and about the same number of Spanish vessels have been ascertained to clear for foreign ports. The exports consist of the precious metals, silks, woollens, flowered cottons and calicoes,‡ lace, shoes,‖ fire-arms, cork, fruit, wines, and brandies.§ The imports are silks from Lyons and Nismes, jewellery from Paris, millinery from other parts of France, cotton goods and stock-fish from England, wax from Africa; also, hardware, woollen goods, corn, and oil of vitriol. The whole

* The original port was to the south of Monjuich, but was choked up, and its mole destroyed by storms in the sixteenth century.

† In one year, the number was, 500 Spanish, 200 French, 150 English, 60 Danes, 45 Dutch, and upwards of 300 of other nations.

‡ Laborde states the value of the cotton goods and woollens manufactured at Barcelona at upwards of 440,000*l.*, of which two-thirds were sent to the Spanish colonies.

‖ The number of shoes exported from Barcelona annually is stated at 700,000 pair, at 2*s.* 1*d.* each, amounting to 70,290*l.*

§ Catalonia, in 1785, furnished 35,000 pipes of brandy, 2,000 of wine, and 30,000 bags of nuts; of which, about 4,000 pipes of brandy, together with some silk, went to Guernsey and Alderney, "and the rest to France, all to be smuggled into England." Specie is contraband.

amount of exports and imports is stated by Laborde at upwards of 1,750,000*l.* sterling; but in this, the smuggling trade is probably not included. The two principal trades in Barcelona are the tailors and the shoemakers. "It is curious to observe," says Mr. Townsend, "that as Scotland is remarkable for breeding gardeners, Ireland chairmen, Switzerland soldiers, so, Catalonia is distinguished all over Spain for shoemakers and tailors."* The other principal trades are the silk-weavers, cutlers, armourers and braziers, carpenters, turners, cabinet-makers, and embroiderers. There are extensive cotton and woollen manufactories, and a "magnificent foundry for brass cannon." The industry which every where appears in Catalonia, seems to act with concentrated force in Barcelona. One hundred and five villages, within the compass of five leagues, all subject to its jurisdiction, partake of its prosperity.† The manufactures of Barcelona date as far back as the thirteenth century. No place in Spain suffers more from a war with a maritime power.

The costume of Barcelona is the usual Spanish dress. The ladies of every condition wear the *basquina* (petticoat), *saya* (body or spencer), and

* Ireland is more remarkable now for supplying us with bricklayer's labourers; and Scotland sends us almost as many bakers as gardeners.

† This representation of the state of things must be considered as applying to the time when Mr. Townsend travelled; for, though Laborde's work is of so much more recent a date, his information tallies so remarkably with the statements of the English Traveller, as to lead to the suspicion that he has made use of similar documents. The rate of manufacturing wages in Barcelona, in 1786, had advanced to 1*s.* 6*d.* per day; agricultural labour, 1*s.* 2*d.* in winter; 1*s.* 8*d.* in harvest. The price of provisions was, mutton 10*d.* per lb. (of 36 oz.), beef 7*d.* per lb., bread 1¾*d.* per 12 oz.; lodging 42*s.* per an. Fuel is scarce.

mantilla (veil), together with silk stockings, and shoes embroidered either with silk, or with gold and silver fringe, spangles, or pearls. Their feet are for the most part small and well shaped, and the *basquina* admits of the display of this important part of the dress and figure of a Spanish belle. The veil is the only covering worn on the head; and by the material of which this is made, the higher class are chiefly distinguished. A Spanish lady's full dress is generally black, with the veil either white or black, more commonly the latter; her undress is of any colour. They are fond of adorning their hair, neck, arms, and fingers with jewels. The fan is a most indispensable article; and to wield this sceptre of the fair with grace, and to make it perform all its telegraphic purposes, is a prime accomplishment. The gala dress of the noblemen is as superb as gold and silver embroidery can make it. Every thing at Barcelona, we are told, breathes a taste for pleasure and luxury. The inhabitants are passionately fond of plays, balls, masquerades, and every description of public spectacle; but have often been "checked in their festivities by the government, or rather, the Inquisition." They are not very social, however, in their general habits; and the citizens pass a great part of the year at their country seats.

The church festivals here are very brilliant, being always accompanied with illuminations. Those in Holy Week are the most remarkable. Throughout Spain, nothing is done during the last three days of that week, but visiting the several churches, where sermons are preached, and services performed, commemorative of the passion and death of the Redeemer. During these days, all are dressed in mourning; and every man, from the king to the beggar, must go on

foot. On Easter day, the scene is changed: all resume their gayest attire and most splendid equipages. The churches, which had been stripped of their ornaments, to adorn one particular spot, called *the sepulchre*, are decked forth anew with redoubled splendour, and blaze with illuminations. The bells, which had all ceased tolling, now fill the air with their merry but discordant clangour. The Gothic, ludicrous, and expensive processions and mock exhibitions of the Passion scenery, are now, for the most part, discontinued, and are universally discountenanced by the secular clergy; though, in many places, the idle monks join with the unthinking vulgar in endeavouring to protract the existence of these pompous but disgusting and disgraceful absurdities.* The consumption of

* Mr. Townsend witnessed one of these pageants. The procession was opened by Roman centurions in their proper armour. Then followed representations of the Last Supper, the treachery of Judas, the flagellation, the crucifixion, the taking down from the cross, the unction, the burial, and every subsequent transaction, —all described by groupes of pasteboard or wooden images as large as life, placed on lofty stages, borne each by six men, who were concealed by a black velvet drapery richly embroidered. All was as highly ornamented as carving and gilding, rich silks, brocades, velvets, and curious embroidery could render them. These stages or litters were attended by 800 burgesses clothed in black buckram, with flowing trains, each carrying a flambeau. Next came 180 penitents, in a dress somewhat resembling that of the Blue-coat boys of Christ's Hospital, but made of dark brown shalloon; and on their heads they wore a bonnet of a conical shape, which covered the head and face completely, having holes for the eyes: each bore a flambeau. These were followed by twenty others, whose crimes were supposed to be greater: they walked bare-foot, dragging heavy chains, and bearing large crosses on their shoulders. For their consolation, they had assigned to them the post of honour, for immediately after them followed the sacred corpse, placed in a glass coffin, and attended by twenty-five priests in their richest robes, and a well-chosen band playing the softest and most solemn music. The soldiers of the garrison brought up the rear. The different stages belonged to different bodies cor-

wax here, during the holy week, is enormous. Nearly 30,000 flambeaux of white wax, weighing from five to six pounds each, are burnt in the three processions.

But the most splendid procession in all the year, is that of *Corpus Christi.* "All the arts and trades join in it, each bearing a damask standard; together with the religious communities, part of the secular clergy of every parish, and the cathedral chapter. Every person carries a white wax taper in his hand. Young children are seen dressed fantastically like angels, bearing censers and incense, and strewing the way with flowers. Bands of music are stationed at certain distances. A detachment of grenadiers surrounds the canopy, under which the host is carried; the magistrates and civil dignitaries follow it; and the procession is closed by the garrison troops. From the windows and balconies of all the houses in the line of march, the richest tapestries are displayed. The whole pomp is heightened by the discharge of artillery from the ramparts, the ringing of the bells, beating of the drums, and flourishing of trumpets."

porate, either of the nobles or the artificers, and were ranged in the procession according to their right of precedency. The day following, another procession of the same kind, but more elegant, was conducted through the streets, all the stages being different; and in the evening, a third, at which all the nobles of Barcelona assisted, each attended by two servants, and carrying in rotation, a crucifix as large as life, so heavy that no one for any length of time could sustain its weight. These processions were intermitted for several years, being prohibited by Government on account of the scandalous abuses which had crept into them; and in their place was substituted the carnival, with the same licentious riot and confusion as in Italy. In 1774, the carnival was prohibited, and the trade of the town, which had always been brisk at that season, suffered so materially, that the citizens loudly called for the revival of the processions.

* This procession was formerly preceded by giants and animals, moved on by men concealed in their bodies; but this part of the

Monjuich (or Monjuiz, pronounced Monjuique), which commands the city on the south-west, derives its name, according to some, from a corruption of *Mons Jovis;* according to others, from *Mons Judaicus.* In support of the latter conjecture, it may be mentioned, that about half-way up the hill, looking towards the city, there is a spot said to have been an ancient burial-place of the Jews, where lie scattered many large hewn-stones, bearing Hebrew inscriptions. Mr. Townsend says the word was anciently written *Monjouy.* On the other hand, the citadel at Gerona also bears the name of Monjuich; and it seems hardly probable that both citadels should have derived their name from a Jewish burial-ground. The base and body of this mountain is sandstone, or a fine-grained silicious grit, white, red, and grey, with some sprinkling of mica. On some parts of the summit is found a covering of pudding-stone, with schist, clay, and fuller's earth; and both the schist and the clay contain fossil shells. Mr. Townsend supposes, that the whole mountain must be a deposite of granite sand, formed by the currents at some remote period, when this part was covered by the sea. Every part of the ancient castle which stood here, is destroyed. The new fortress was erected early in the reign of Charles III. The walls are of stone; the main body of the place is bomb-proof, very neatly finished. One of the principal bastions is scooped into a cistern capable of containing 70,000 cubic feet of water, of which only a small quantity at a time is let off into a draw-well, to prevent any traitor from poisoning the stock of water. On the sea-side, it has been deemed im-

pageant was suppressed about fifty years ago. The giants, however, again made their appearance in 1798.

pregnable, so admirably has the natural strength of the situation been improved by art; and towards the land, the glacis has been sloped at an incredible expense, in such a manner that no approaches can be made under shelter. Every house in Barcelona lies exposed to it; and an extensive view is obtained of the coast, the harbour, and the marshy, fertile, but unhealthy plain watered by the Llobregat.

The surrounding country is fertile and well cultivated, abounding with grapes, figs, and other fruit, all sorts of grain, and various vegetables. The soil of the plain, from six to ten feet deep, is clay. Near the city flows a little stream, the *Bezos*, which in summer serves the purpose of irrigation. Opposite the city, at a league's distance, is the mountain of San Geronimo, famous for its capuchin convent and its fine gardens: on its sides are quarries of limestone and marble, on which are superposed schist and granite. The prospect is very extensive and pleasing, but not equal to that which is obtained from the summit of Mont S. Pedro Martir. Here, looking northward, Montserrat forms a magnificent object; and beyond it, the Pyrenees appear sinking in the horizon, looking only like a wall of snow. To the south and east, is seen the whole of the rich vale which supplies the city and the numerous adjacent villages; and, beyond this, the Mediterranean. To the westward flows the Llobregat, descending through the gorges of the mountains, from which it receives innumerable torrents, and, having spent its fury, moves on slowly to the sea, meandering through the extensive plain which itself has formed. The base and body of this mountain also is granite, on which lies a stratum of schist. These mountains are cultivated, and, where the plough

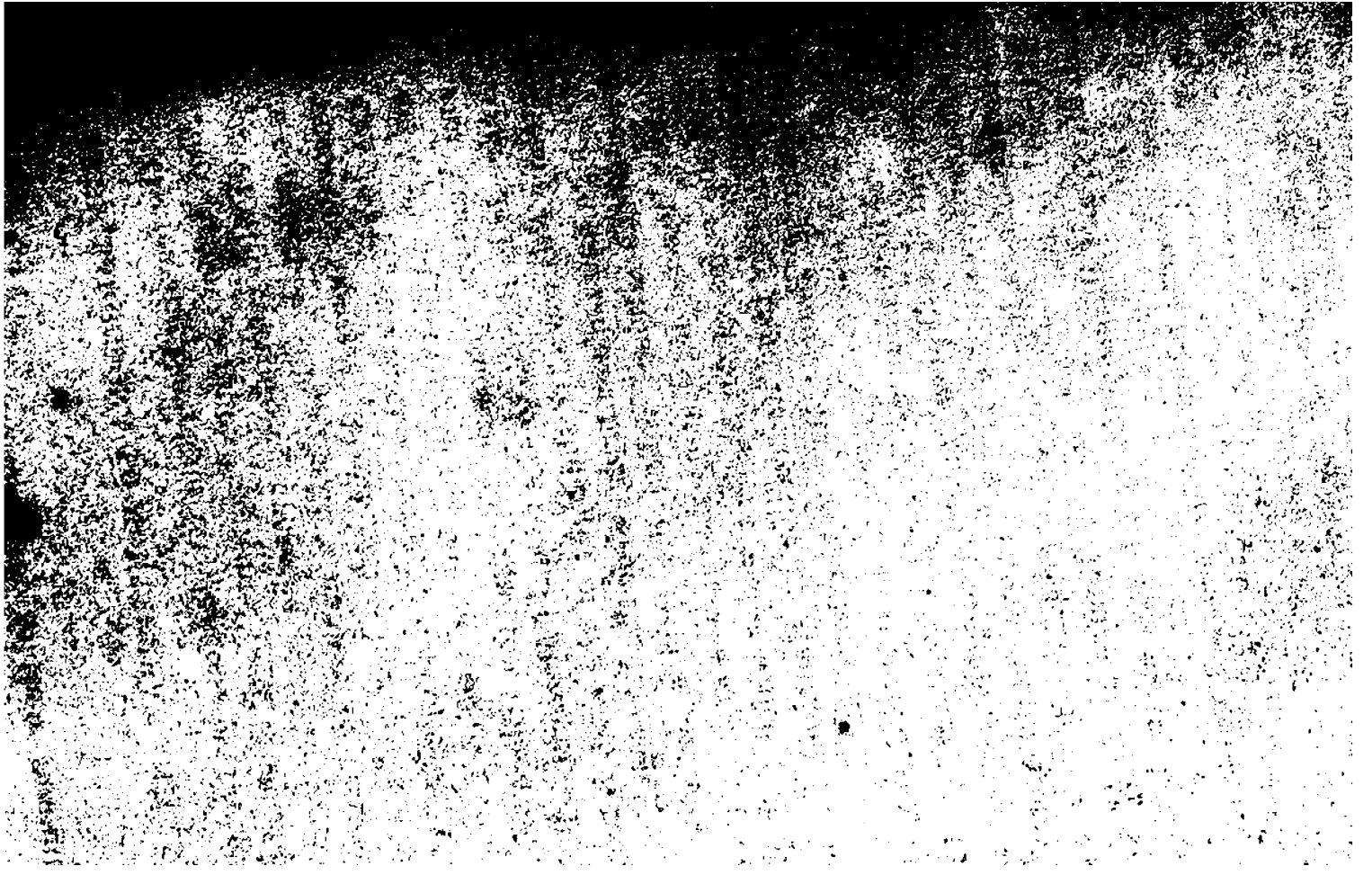
cannot go, are clothed even to their summits with vines.*

FROM BARCELONA TO MONTSERRAT AND LERIDA.

On leaving Barcelona for Aragon, by the gate of *San Antonio*, a much-frequented road, broad and bordered with trees, leads over the plain to San Felice, a considerable village, with a number of handsomely decorated houses. About half a league further, the traveller crosses the Llobregat by the bridge of *Molins del Rey;* and leaving to the left the road to Tarragona and Valencia, proceeds through the village of San Andre de la Barca, to the town of Martorel. Before entering this town, to the right of the road, is seen a very high and narrow bridge over the Llobregat, with three Gothic arches, called the Devil's Bridge. It bears an inscription, stating that it was built in 1768, out of the ruins of an ancient bridge which had existed 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal, in the 535th year of Rome. At the northern end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. "It is almost entire, well proportioned, and simple, without any ornament, except a rim or two of hewn stone. The large stone-casing has almost all fallen off."

Martorel is the *Telobis* of the Romans. It is a small, dirty, and ill-built town, situated at the con-

* On the neighbouring mountains, Mr. Townsend found the *quercus coccifera*, but discovered no traces of the insect. Near the sea is found the carob-tree (*ceratonia siliqua*), vulgarly called St. John's bread. (See MOD. TRAV., *Palestine*, p. 187.) The Spanish name is *al garrobo*, or *algarrobera*, of which the English appellation is probably a corruption. It is an evergreen; the foliage is beautiful and luxuriant; the pod is long, and contains many seeds abounding with saccharine matter. They are here given to the cattle.



THE GARDENS OF THE CONVENT OF MONT SERRAT

flux of the Noya with the Llobregat. It contains a parish church, a monastery, barracks, and a tolerable inn. The women are employed in making black lace. Soon after crossing the Noya by a wooden bridge, the traveller has an interesting view of Montserrat,* famous for its rich Benedictine monastery. This mountain, "one of the most singular in the world, for situation, shape, and composition, stands insulated, towering over a hilly country, like a pile of grotto-work or Gothic spires." It is formed of an assemblage of immense cones piled one above the other, rising to the elevation of 3,300 feet above the level of the sea. The rocks are quite naked, and, at a distance, present no trace of vegetation; but, on a nearer approach, they are perceived to enclose evergreen forests and glens of romantic beauty. We shall avail ourselves of Mr. Swinburne's description of this singular spot. The road to the foot of the mountains turns off through *Espalungena*, a long village full of cloth and lace manufactories.

"We ascended by the steepest road, as that for carriages winds quite round, and requires half a day's travelling. After two hours' tedious ride from east to west, up a narrow path cut out of the side of gulleys and precipices, we reached the highest part of the road, and turned round the easternmost point of the mountain, near the deserted hermitage of St. Michael. Here we came in sight of the convent, placed in a nook of the mountain. It seems as if vast torrents of water, or some violent convulsion of nature, had split the eastern face of Montserrat, and formed in the cleft a sufficient platform to build the monas-

* *Monte Serrado* means the sawed mountain; and the arms of the abbey are, the Virgin sitting at the foot of a rock half cut through with a saw.

tery upon. The Llobregat roars at the bottom, and perpendicular walls of rock of prodigious height rise from the water-edge near half-way up the mountain. Upon these masses of white stone rests the small piece of level ground which the monks inhabit. Close behind the abbey, and in some parts impending over it, huge cliffs shoot up in a semicircle to a stupendous elevation. Their summits are split into sharp cones, pillars, pipes, and other odd shapes, blanched and bare; but the interstices are filled up with forests of evergreen and deciduous trees and plants. Fifteen hermitages are placed among the woods, some of them on the very pinnacles of the rocks, and in cavities hewn out of the loftiest of these pyramids. The prospect is not only astonishing, but absolutely unnatural. These rocks are composed of limestones of different colours, glued together by a sand and a yellow calcareous earth. In some parts, they consist of freestone and white quartz, mixed with some touchstone. There may, perhaps, be reason to suspect fire to have been a principal agent in the formation of this insulated mountain.

"This is one of the forty-five religious houses of the Spanish congregation of the order of St. Benedict. Their general chapter is held every fourth year at Valladolid, where the deputies choose abbots and other dignitaries for the ensuing *quadrennium*. In this monastery, they elect for abbot, a Catalonian and a Castilian alternately. Their possessions are great, consisting of nine villages lying to the south of the mountain; but the king had lately curtailed their income about 6,000 livres a year. Their original foundation, in 866, gave them nothing but the mountain, and to donations and economy they owe the great increase of their landed property. They are bound to feed and harbour for three days all pil-

grims. The allowance is, a luncheon of bread in the morning; as much more, with broth, at noon; and bread again at night. The number of professed monks is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of singing boys 25, besides a physician, a surgeon, and servants.

"The church is gloomy, and the gilding much sullied with the smoke of eighty-five silver lamps of various forms and sizes, that hang round the cornice of the sanctuary. Funds have been bequeathed by different devotees for furnishing them with oil. The choir above stairs is decorated with the *life* of Christ in good wooden carving. A gallery runs on each side of the chancel, for the convenience of the monks. A large iron grate divides the church from the chapel of the Virgin, where the far-famed image stands in a niche over the altar, before which burn four tapers in large silver candlesticks, the present of the Duke of Medina Celi. In the sacristy and the passages leading to it, are presses and cupboards full of relics and ornaments (votive offerings) of gold, silver, and precious stones. They pointed out to us, as the most remarkable, two crowns for the Virgin and her Son, of inestimable value, some large diamond rings, an excellent cameo of Medusa's head, the Roman emperors in alabaster, the sword of St. Ignatius, and the chest of a famous brother, John Guarin, of whom they relate the same story as that given in the Spectator, of Santon Barsissa.

"From the sacristy, we went up to the *camarines*, small rooms behind the high altar, hung with paintings, several of which are very good. A strong silver-plated door being thrown open, we were bid to lean forward and kiss the hand of *Nuestra Señora*. It is half worn away by the eager kisses of its votaries, but we could not ascertain whether it is marble

or silver, as it is painted black. The face of the Mother is regularly handsome, but of the colour of a negro woman.*

"After seeing the convent, we set out for the hermitages, and took the short way up a crevice between two huge masses of rock, where, in rainy weather, the waters dash down in furious torrents. We counted 600 holes, or steps, so steep and perpendicular, that from below we did not discern the least track. A hand-rail, and a few seats to take breath upon, enabled us to perform the escalade. Soon after, we arrived, through a wilderness of evergreens, at the narrow platform where the first hermit dwells. His cells, kitchen, chapel, and gardens are admirably neat and romantic, built upon various patches of level on the tops of precipices. The view from it is wild and, in fine, clear weather, most delightful. The hermits are all clad in brown habits, and wear long beards. They rise at two every morning, ring out their bell, and pray till it is time to go to mass at the hermitage called the *Parish*. Mass is always said at break of day. Some of them have two hours' walk down to it. The convent allows them bread. wine, salt, oil, one pair of shoes, and one of stockings a year, with twenty-five *reals* a month to each of them for other necessaries. A couple of men are kept to assist them in their labour, each in his turn. A mule carries up their provisions twice a week, and is occasionally driven to Barcelona for salt-fish and other things, which they buy by clubbing together. They never eat meat, or converse with each other. Their novi-

* It has been ingeniously conjectured, that this whimsical idea of giving "Our Lady" an Ethiopic complexion, arose from taking literally, and applying to the Virgin, the expression in Cant. i. 5, "*Nigra sum sed formosa.*"

tiate is very severe, for they must undergo six months' service in the infirmary of the abbey, one year among the novices, and six years' further trial, before they are suffered to go up to a hermitage, which they cannot obtain after all, but by the unanimous consent of the whole chapter. They take every vow of the monks, and, over and above, one of never quitting the mountain; but none of them are allowed to enter into holy orders. Their first habitation is always the most remote from the convent, and they descend according as vacancies happen in the lower cells.

"Having left a small present in the chapel-window, we continued our walk. Wherever the winding paths are level, nothing can be more agreeable than to saunter through the close woods and sweet wildernesses that fill up the space between the rocks. There are very few evergreens in Europe, that may not be found here, besides a great variety of deciduous plants. The apothecary of the house has a list of 437 species of plants, and 40 of trees. The greatest hardship here, is a scarcity of good water. Except one spring at the Parish, and another at the convent, they have no other than cistern water. The want of water is so great, that neither wolf, bear, nor other wild beast is ever seen on the mountain.

"The second hermitage we came to, stands on a point of the rock, over a precipice that descends almost to the very bed of the river. My head was near turning at looking down. The prospect is inimitably grand, extending over the northern and eastern parts of the province, which are very hilly and bare, bounded by the mountains of Roussillon. The true Pyrenees appear through some breaks in that chain. Manresa is the principal town in view. In a clear day, they assured us, they could see Majorca, which is 181 miles

distant. Upon the round rock that hangs over the hermit's cell, was formerly a castle, with its cistern and drawbridge, where some banditti harboured. From this strong hold, they made excursions to pillage the neighbouring valleys. By rolling down stones, they kept the monks in perpetual alarm, and obliged them to send up whatever provisions were wanted in the garrison. At last, a few soldiers climbed up the rock, surprised the fort, and destroyed this nest of robbers.

"At *La Trinidad*, the next cell we walked to, the monks by turns go up to pass a few days in summer by way of recreation. The hermit has many rooms, and is allowed a boy to wait upon him. Having scrambled up to one or two more hermitages, we found our curiosity satisfied; as, except in point of extensiveness of prospect, they varied little from those we had already seen. We therefore turned down another path, which led us to the dwelling of the vicar, a monk who during four years takes upon him the direction of the hermits. Lower down, we arrived at *Santa Cecilia*, the parish-church, where, every morning, the silent inhabitants of this *Thebais* meet to hear mass, and perform divine service, and twice a week to confess and communicate. About eleven, we got down to the abbey for dinner; and, having received the customary donation of blessed crosses and holy medals, we mounted our mules, and returned to Martorel." *

In pursuing the route to Lerida, we must now part company with Swinburne, and follow Townsend and Laborde, who conduct us in this direction to the confines of Aragon.

The traveller does not lose sight of Montserrat for several leagues. At Piera, a village five leagues

* Swinburne's Travels, vol. i. pp. 77—91.

from Martorel, the mountain "no longer appears like a sugar-loaf, but rather like a saw, rising almost perpendicular, and lifting up its rugged rocks like pyramids to meet the clouds." The country near this surprising mountain is every where torn by deep ravines, about 120 feet in depth, and appears to be composed of broken schist with clay and sand. Montserrat itself is formed of pudding-stone. A geological phenomenon still more remarkable, occurs about sixteen leagues from Barcelona, near the village of Cardona; a mountain three miles in circumference, and about 500 feet in elevation, without cleft or crevice, which consists of one mass of gem-salt, of such hardness as to admit of its being worked, like the fluor-spar of Derbyshire, into crosses, snuff-boxes, candlesticks, vases, and other trinkets, as transparent as rock-crystal. The river Cardonero at its foot is salt, and becomes more so after rain, "so as to kill the fish for nearly three leagues' distance." Mr. Townsend carried a little fragment with him all through Spain, without its exhibiting the least sign of deliquescence, but, in our humid climate, it soon melted. "After having travelled many leagues," he continues, "with Montserrat constantly on our right, and rising above us like a wave prepared to burst, we began to increase our distance from its base, and, winding to the left, descended among the mountains which border on the Noya, and which are composed of white granite. The ravines here are wider and deeper than those which we had seen the day before. Having crossed the Noya, we proceeded along its banks for about half a mile, through a narrow pass, with the river on our right, and, on our left, cliffs rising perpendicularly to the height of nearly 200 feet, composed of a soft calcareous rock, embedding snails and leaves, like that

between Montpellier and Montferrier." The road is very bad, in rainy weather almost impassable, and the Noya must be forded three times before reaching Igualada. The country is enlivened, however, by the number of paper-mills which are turned by this wild stream:* it falls into the Llobregat.

Igualada, a town containing about 12,000 inhabitants, is charmingly situated in a rich and well-watered plain, broken by ravines, and covered with corn-lands and olive-grounds. The fire-arms made here are in high estimation: there are also manufactories of printed calicoes and stained cottons. In this neighbourhood, the schistous rock is gradually lost in a limestone formation, covered with a white clay, which gives place to gypsum; and "in the same progress," says Mr. Townsend, "we lost at first the vine, then the olive and the ilex, till nothing remained but the *quercus coccifera* and the oak."

The road now again passes over parched and uncultivated mountains; but, as the traveller approaches Cervera, the gypsum gives way to a vast expanse of chalk. The road to that city winds up a long, steep hill, on the summit of which the traveller finds himself at the entrance of a delightful, elevated plain, extremely fertile, surrounded by hills, on one side of chalk, on the other, of limestone. Cervera is a walled town with seven gates, containing a church of Gothic construction, five convents, a hospital, and a university founded by Philip V., (at the time that he suppressed, in resentment, all the others in Catalonia,) in recompense for its loyalty, this being almost the only town

* Paper was at this time a considerable branch of commerce in Catalonia, being exported in large quantities to the colonies, as well as to other ports of Spain. In 1777, this province contained 112 paper-mills: in 1788, their number exceeded 300.

in the province that adhered to him in the Succession war. There are forty-three professors, and about 800 scholars. In the *Hospicio de la Misericordia*, girls are educated; and there is, besides, a seminary, which maintains about a hundred students. The architecture of the university is very handsome. The front extends 319 feet in length, and its depth is nearly equal to its length. In the interior are two large courts, surrounded with arcades resting on columns. The country round Cervera is extremely fertile, and has a very cheerful appearance; but the town itself is gloomy. The scholars and fellows of the university form by far the greater part of the population; and it appears quite deserted in the times of vacation. The number of inhabitants is estimated at 5,000.

The road now traverses the fine and extensive plain of Urgel. This part of the country, between the Noya and the Segre, is the highest land in Catalonia. At the end of two leagues is Tarrega, a small but thriving town, with about 2,000 inhabitants. There are two ranges of barracks here; and a market is held twice a week, which is much frequented. The chief articles of commerce are corn, wine, and oil; particularly corn, which is brought from Urgel. About a league from Tarrega, the road passes near two small towns, Vertu and Angle-Solas. The former has about 1,700 inhabitants, and is famous for an annual fair, much frequented, chiefly for the sale of mules: it is held in April, and lasts eight days. At Bell-puch, a small and ill-built town, with a population of about 1,200 persons, there is a handsome Franciscan convent, with two square cloisters, one above the other. The upper cloister is in the Gothic style, supported by small white marble columns, coupled, the capitals decorated with human figures,

animals, flowers, and foliage. The church, built in 1507, at the expense of Raymundo de Cardona, Viceroy of Sicily, is large and well constructed. The tomb of its founder is said to be one of the finest pieces of sculpture produced since the revival of the arts. A parched and bare tract of country now succeeds, till the traveller discovers the spires of Lerida; but on approaching that city, the country assumes a delightful appearance. For the last quarter of a league, the road leads through a fine avenue of poplars on a raised causeway, to a handsome stone bridge over the Segre, re-constructed from the ruins of a Roman one. Here, the traveller has to undergo the search of custom-house officers, and his passport must be shewn to the governor.

Lerida (the ancient Ilerda) was the capital of the *Ilergetes*, prior to the first invasion of Spain by the Romans. In the plains of Lerida, Scipio gained a signal victory over Hanno, the Carthaginian general, in the year of Rome 537. Ilerda was also rendered famous by the distress to which Julius Cæsar was reduced when encamped in its neighbourhood. "He had taken possession of a plain shut in between the rivers Cinga and Sicoris, and defended by a deep intrenchment, whilst Petreius and Afranius, Pompey's generals, were encamped on a hill between him and Ilerda. In the intermediate space, between the hill and the city, is a plain of no great extent, with an eminence which, if seized, might be quickly fortified, and being fortified, would cut off all communication with the city. For this, during five hours, they maintained a doubtful conflict; but, in the end, fortune declared in favour of Afranius, and Cæsar retreated to his camp. While revolving in his mind how he should cover this disgrace, word was brought that, by

the melting of the snow upon the mountains, his two bridges were broken down, that the country was laid under water by the overflowing of the rivers, and that all communication was cut off with the provinces by which his army had been fed. The immediate consequence was famine. While he remained in this situation, messengers were sent to Rome, and all gave him up for lost. It was upon the news of this distress, that Cicero left the city, and joined Pompey at Dyrrhachium. Cæsar, without loss of time, set his men to work, and having made a sufficient number of little boats, light and portable like those which he had seen in Britain, after a few days, sent a party up the river in the night, who, with these boats, made good their landing, and having fortified a camp, secured his retreat."

The beauty of the situation and the fertility of the soil, induced the Romans to make it a colony under the title of *Municipium Illerdense.* It fell successively under the dominion of the Goths and the Moors, and was taken from the latter, in 1149, by Raymond Berenger, soon after his marriage with the heiress of Aragon; since which time it has formed a part of Catalonia.

The modern city stands on the declivity of a hill, on the right bank of the river Segre, which bathes its walls. The rock is a silicious grit with a calcareous cement. On the summit is the castle, now in decay. The position of the ancient city, as described by Lucan, is still discernible. "The situation of Lerida," Mr. Townsend says, "is delightful, the surrounding country being one continued garden covered with corn, vines, and olive-trees. For beauty, few places can equal it, but, from the abundance of water, it is far from being healthy." There is one tolerable street

a quarter of a league long, but the rest of the streets are narrow, crooked, and ill paved, and the houses are ill built. Towards the river, a fine quay had been recently built, extending the whole length of the town, and serving as a dike against the Segre, and a promenade for the inhabitants. The population is estimated at 18,000. Lerida is an episcopal city. Besides the cathedral, there are four parish churches, eight (Mr. Townsend says thirteen) monasteries, three nunneries, a hospital, and an college. Its university, established A.D. 1300, by Jayme II., King of Aragon, was suppressed, together with the other Catalonian universities, by Philip V. There is now only one college for the education of youth, which is supported by the bishop; and the Franciscan nuns give public and gratuitous instruction to girls. The cathedral, which is a modern structure, is the only edifice worth attention. A double flight of about twenty steps, leads to the terrace on which the gates of the church open. The front has six fluted pilasters of the Corinthian order, between which there are three large doors, with iron grates of handsome workmanship, and there are two fine square towers. The whole is of freestone. The surrounding country is intersected with canals, supplied from the neighbouring rivers, and is carefully and skilfully irrigated. Silk-worms are bred here, but to no great extent.

From Barcelona to Lerida is from 25 to 27 leagues, or nearly 100 miles. Beyond Lerida, the road to Aragon lies over barren and gloomy mountains. Nothing is to be seen but naked rocks and a succession of parched hills. At the end of two leagues, is a wretched village, called *Alcaraz*, supposed to be the *Orcia* of Ptolemy. It was once a fortified town, and was taken from the Moors in 1149, by the Count of

Urgel. At the end of this village, on the right, is seen a very old square tower, with battlements and loop-holes. Half a mile further on, two blocks of freestone mark the boundary of Catalonia and Aragon. In advancing in this direction westward towards Saragossa, the traveller is reminded at every step, that he has entered a new kingdom. "The red cap and the black velvet breeches are no longer seen; but, in their stead, a black velvet bonnet peaked like a mitre, and short white trowsers, called *bragas*, reaching more than half-way down the thighs. The face of country is likewise changed, being more hilly and broken by torrents, not altogether barren, but uncultivated and left desolate. For many miles together, there is neither house, nor tree, nor man, nor beast, except a few straggling carriers with their mules; and by the road side are seen wooden crosses, to mark the spot where some unhappy traveller lost his life. The passengers think it a work of piety, to cast a stone upon the monumental heap. Whatever may have been the origin of this practice, it is general over Spain; and round most monumental crosses is seen a heap of stones." *

We must not, however, at present pursue this route, having to explore the southern part of Catalonia. Mr. Swinburne will be our guide in tracing the route

FROM BARCELONA TO VALENCIA.

A little beyond the bridge over the Llobregat, near Molins del Rey, two roads branch off; that to the right leading to Martorel, which we have been pursuing; that to the left conducts us to Tarragona.

* Townsend, vol. i. p. 199.

At the end of a short day's stage, is the *venta* of Cipreret, in the midst of a wild, mountainous country, with a few pines scattered about the hills, seldom enough to form a grove. "Here," says Mr. Swinburne, "we saw for the first time a true Spanish kitchen, viz. a hearth raised above the level of the floor under a wide funnel, where a circle of muleteers were huddled together over a few cinders. Next morning, we passed a broad glen or hollow, over which they intended to convey the high road in a straight line, by means of a bridge of three rows of arches one above the other. Had they turned a little to the left by a gradual slope, the descent had been trifling, and a single arch sufficient for the passage of the water. I should suspect, they build here for the diversion of future antiquaries, not for the use of the present generation, which feels all the weight of the expense, without reaping any benefit from such ill-calculated undertakings. In the present state of things, the pass is very dangerous; and further on, the road grows worse, in a large forest of pines, where the rocks and gulleys render it next to impossible for a carriage to get through without damage. On account of the great number of bridges necessary among these broken hills, and of the obstinacy with which the engineers (whose profits increase by delays and difficulties) persist in carrying the road straight through rocks and torrents, the work advances so slowly, that, before a second mile is finished, the first is ruined for want of repairs." For many years, this bridge remained in the half-finished and abandoned state in which our Traveller found it in 1775; but at length, his Catholic Majesty, having taken a journey through Catalonia, gave orders to complete the structure, which calls to mind, *M. Laborde says, the Roman works.* The

lower bridge has seven arches; the upper one, which is on a level with the road, has thirteen: the whole is of freestone, and upwards of 700 feet in length. At the foot of this steep mountain, the country is fertile and populous, and the soil in the neighbourhood of Villa Franca de Panades, is remarkably light. This town, which is supposed to be the modern representative of *Carthago vetus*, one of the first cities founded by the Carthaginians under Hamilcar Barcas,* derives its name from the privileges conferred upon it by Count Raymond Borel, who recovered it from the Moors about A.D. 1000. It is the head town of a district comprising 112 villages, and is finely situated in the midst of a fertile plain; but the town itself is ill built and gloomy, the streets being narrow, as in all the ancient towns. It contains a parish church, three monasteries, one nunnery, a hermitage, a chapel of Our Lady of Sorrows, an hospital, a linen manufactory, some distilleries, and a good inn. The population is estimated at between 6 and 7,000 persons. The road now enters a forest of pines more than a league in length, at the end of which it crosses a fine valley to the small town of Arbos, situated on a commanding elevation, and presenting the ruins of gates, walls, and moats.† Gornal, the next town, has also been fortified; and at Vendrele, another small town, likewise built on an eminence, the ancient walls are still to be seen. The churches of these towns have octagon towers. All this tract would seem to exhibit signs of depopulation and decay. An hour and a half

* Laborde supposes the site of the ancient town to be on the eminence on which the hermitage of San Miguel of Olerdola now stands.

† This neat and at that time flourishing town, was taken and burned by the French in 1808.—See SOUTHEY'S *Hist.* vol. i. p. 360.

beyond Vendrele, and a mile short of the *venta de la Figareta*, the road passes under a fine Roman arch, called by the country people, *Portal de Bara.* The arch is almost entire, elegant in its proportions, and simple in its ornaments. The gateway is lofty. The entablature is supported on each side by four fluted Corinthian pilasters. The inscription is now illegible,* but is stated by the Spanish historians to have ascribed the erection of this monument to the testamentary directions of Licinius, who was thrice consul under Trajan, and famous for his extraordinary wealth. What purpose it was designed to answer, does not appear. "Some think," says Swinburne, "that it was the entrance of the Campus Tarraconensis, and that a wall ran from the sea, which is about half a mile distant to the S.E., through the olive-grounds, quite up to the hills. There appear some remnants of a wall in that direction, but I will not pretend to say they are of so ancient a date.

"The next day," continues this Traveller, "was the most delightful of our whole journey. The sun shone out in all his splendour, the sea was smooth and calm, the prospect was incessantly varying as we moved on, sometimes along the rich level on the shore, where the bushy heads and glossy leaves of the locust-trees, contrasted with the pale green of the olive-woods, made it appear quite a summer scene; sometimes over gentle eminences, from which we commanded views of numberless bays and promontories, crowned with towers and antique fortifications. The little river Gaya distributes its waters in stone channels to all parts of the valley, and gives vigour to its productions, which otherwise would be parched up

* Mr. Swinburne could only make out the letters, "EX TEST."

by the drought. Here, the tender olive-sets are nursed up in long baskets, till they grow out of the reach of goats and other enemies. As we descended the hill of Bara to the beach, Tarragona presented itself to our view, like a ruined fortress, on a round point projecting into the sea. A little further on, we turned off the road to the right, into a wood of pines and shrubs, to visit a monument which tradition has named the tomb of the Scipios,—the father and uncle of Scipio Africanus, both killed in Spain. This building is small, about nineteen feet square, and twenty-eight high. In the front, facing the sea, are two statues of warriors in mournful postures, roughly cut out of the stones of the sepulchre, and much worn away by the sea air. The inscription is so much defaced, that it is hard to make any thing of it.* I think it has been erected by some priest for himself and family, as the fragments of the last line may be interpreted in that manner. Some take the first word of the first line to have been Cornelius, a name belonging to the Scipios. The top of the monument, which probably ended in a pyramidal form, has fallen off.†

"From the heavy sands of the sea-shore, where a great many fishermen were hauling in their nets, we ascended the naked rock of Tarragona. It produces nothing but the dwarf-palm or palmetto. This plant grows among the stones to the height of one or two feet. The leaves are stiff and sharp, spread out like fingers, or the sticks of a fan, and very much resem-

* "What remains is as follows: ORN··TE··EAQUE··L··O·· VNVS··VER··BVSTVS··I··S··NEGL··VI··VA··FL··BVS··SIBI·· PERPETVO REMANERE."

† "The tomb of Theron, at Girgenti in Sicily, resemble this in form.

bling the leaves of the date-palm. This also produces fruit, and the insipid pith of its root is a favourite eating of the peasants. The leaves make good brooms and ropes, and are of great service in fattening cattle.

"The ancient Tarraco is now contracted to a very trifling city, which covers only a small portion of the Roman enclosure,* and is an ill-built, dirty, depopulated place. Many antiquities have been found, and are still to be seen, in the town and almost all round the walls. A few vestiges remain of the palace of Augustus, and of the great circus: an arch or two of the amphitheatre, and some steps cut in the solid rock, still exist, impending over the sea. About three miles from the city is the *Puente de Ferriera*, an ancient aqueduct, which we did not go to see, not having heard of it till we had passed too far on to turn back. The cathedral, dedicated to Santa Thecla, is ugly; but the new chapel of that tutelar saint is beautiful. The inside is cased with yellow and brown marbles, dug up in the very centre of the town, and ornamented with white foliages and bas-reliefs. The architecture is accounted heavy, but I confess I did not think that fault very glaring. The whole together has a very pleasing effect.

"In Queen Anne's war, the English were in possession of this post, and intended to keep and it, by bringing the river Francolis quite round it. For this purpose, they threw up vast outworks and redoubts, of which the ruins are yet Having secured Minorca and Gibraltar, they re-

* In the time of the Emperor Adrian, its circumference is said to have been 34,190 fathoms: its present circumference is not above 1,400 fathoms. Tarraco was the capital of Hispania Citerior, thence called Tarraconensis.

nounced the project of fixing a garrison in Tarragona."

Of all the cities in Spain, Tarragona, Mr. Townsend says, would furnish the most agreeable employment to the antiquary. M. Laborde says, there is nothing pleasant in the town except its situation, and that has its disadvantages, as there is neither fountain nor well near it; but there is "a superb aqueduct, constructed partly on the ruins of the Roman work," at the sole expense of the archbishop of the day, by which excellent water is now conveyed to the city, from the distance of seven leagues. A large, broad street had also been recently built, containing some handsome edifices; and "the new port," the building of which had been begun seven or eight years before, promised to be one of the finest in the Mediterranean.* The population in 1808, was estimated at 9,000 souls. Tarragona is one of the most ancient archbishoprics in Spain: it is said to have existed under King Wamba. The city was sacked by the Moors in 714, when all the inhabitants were put to the sword. Count Raymond Berenger recovered it from them in 1150; but it fell again under their yoke, and was finally rescued from them by Alfonso, King of Aragon, in 1220. Having, with the other cities of Catalonia, revolted against Philip IV., it was besieged and taken by that

* The trade of Tarragona had so far revived in 1805, that the port was visited that year by 1,515 Spanish, and 199 foreign vessels. The exports consisted chiefly of wines and brandies; the imports, of grain and other provisions. The wines for which there was the greatest demand, were those of the Campo de Tarragona, and the vineyards of Reuss, in which districts a great quantity of brandy was made. The inhabitants of Tarragona had recently obtained permission to open a road to Lerida, which would shorten by a two days' journey their communication with the interior of Aragon.—Bourgoing's *Spain*, vol. iii. p. 293. It has in Reuss, however, a formidable commercial rival.

monarch in 1640. Four years after, the French laid siege to it, but were forced to raise the blockade. In the Succession war, it adhered to the Austrian party, and opened its gates, in 1705, to the English troops, who are accused of setting fire to the city on abandoning it after the peace of Utrecht. "This conflagration," Laborde says, "destroyed a part of the buildings and fortifications; and from this period dates the total decline of Tarragona." Its university, founded in 1572 by the archbishop, was included among the universities vindictively suppressed by Philip V. There are, of course, several monasteries and nunneries here, and an orphan asylum.

From this city, the traveller descends into the Campo Tarragones, "a plain of about nine miles in diameter, one of the most fruitful spots in Europe: there is not an uncultivated spot in the whole extent. The abundance and excellence of its productions have induced all the foreign houses settled in Barcelona, to establish agents and factors at Reuss, the principal town, pretty near the centre of the plain." A mile from Tarragona, the Francolis is crossed by a bridge of six arches. At the distance of a league and a half, a few miles to the left of the road, is the harbour of Salona, to which, anciently, the jurisdiction of Tarraco extended. It is connected by a canal with Reuss. This thriving town, which, in the middle of the eighteenth century, was little more than a village, had within a few years risen to a high degree of prosperity. When Mr. Swinburne was there (in 1775), the number of inhabitants already amounted to 20,000, having increased above two-thirds within fifteen years, and the suburbs were twice as large as the old town. This increase, however, had been at the expense of the inland villages, many of which were left

almost destitute of inhabitants. "Reuss," says M. Bourgoing, "is one of those wonderful creations which a traveller cannot help making a circuit of a few leagues to see and to admire. He will there find, under the direction of an English firm, one of the finest distilleries in Europe, a very handsome theatre, some beautiful barracks, and a general appearance of activity and abundance. Great quantities of leather are also made here, as well as at the town of Balls or Valls, which is only three leagues to the N.E." Reuss is about eight miles W. of Tarragona, and six miles from the sea.*

The route from Reuss lies for some time over the plain. The soil being clayey, the road is execrable, and the view is confined on every side by groves of olive and carob-trees, till, at the ruined castle called the *Casa Yerma*, it enters the desert which forms the sea-shore. It continues to run along the shore to the *Hospitalet*, — a spacious castellated building, erected by a prince of the royal house of Aragon, for the reception and aid of travellers. "The revenues assigned for this foundation," Laborde says, "are still received, and the building exists, yet, the object is lost sight of. One part of the edifice serves as an inn; another part for a glass-house, and the rest is occupied by a chaplain, who enjoys the revenues. Every one is at present accommodated here for his money, but the traveller will stop only from necessity, for the inn is detestable." After continuing for about a league

* Reuss is not mentioned by Laborde, though he notices every village and *venta*, in his account of this route; a proof that his itinerary is compiled in great measure from obsolete materials. The town is not, indeed, in the direct route; but Salona is referred to, which is its port. Mr. Townsend's work often contains more recent as well as more correct information, though he travelled twenty years before the French writer.

along the foot of the mountains, the traveller has now to climb a steep pass called *Le Col de Bolaguer*, passing under a small fort built to command the defile and the coast. On the summit stands a *venta* or inn,—if such it can be called. From this place to another wretched hovel, called the *Venta del Platero*, a distance of between three and four leagues, the road, which is most rugged and fatiguing, lies over bleak, uncomfortable hills, covered only with low shrubs, where nothing but the prospect of the sea and the watch-towers placed as beacons along the shore, occurs to enliven the dreary scene. From that *venta* to the village of Perillos, a distance of four leagues, the road is still worse, and the waste more and more barren. Sometimes, the traveller ascends to a dizzy elevation, and looks down with terror on the abysses beneath: sometimes, he is buried in deep, narrow gulleys, where only a small strip of the sky is visible. The torrents which rush from the adjoining ridge of mountains after every heavy shower, have swept away all bridges and causeways, and washed the road to the very rock.* "In a few hours," continues Mr. Swinburne, "we emerged from this desert, which is at least ten leagues long. In some places, it produces olive and locust-trees, which, when the underwood is cleared

* "Nothing," says Bourgoing, "can be more dreary and desert than the fifteen leagues which separate Tortosa from the town of Cambrils (in the *Campo*): the road from Tortosa to Tarragona remained till 1782, one of the worst in the world.—One of the most striking phenomena that a traveller meets with in Europe, is to find, in a country so well known in Spain, between cities so considerable as Valencia and Barcelona, so near to the sea-coast and to the mouth of a large river, on a road so much frequented by people of every description, and even of every nation,—to find, I say, extensive districts so totally destitute of resources, and of all the conveniences and comforts which, in every other country, are the inseparable companions of civilization and luxury. I question

away, and the earth moved about the roots, become productive of good fruit. A little turn of the road to the west, brought us in sight of the mouth of the Ebro, which appears to waste itself, before it reaches the sea, by running through various channels in a tract of flat lands containing nearly 100,000 acres. There are two good harbours at the mouth of the river, which is navigable for vessels of fifty tons as high up as Tortosa, and for small craft much higher into the kingdom of Aragon."

A bare, stony, and uncultivated tract extends for five leagues, from Perillos to the ferry over the Ebro. On the right bank, a little above its mouth, is the poor little town of Emposta, from which the road leads along the coast to San Carlos, a small sea-port town, built in 1792, at the expense of the crown, in an unhealthy situation, and which does not appear likely to become a place of any consideration. A small canal has been dug from Emposta to San Carlos, which, Laborde says, would, if deepened, open a safe and easy communication between the sea and the Ebro. At present, the entrance of that river is very difficult, owing to the bar formed by shifting banks of sand, which change their situation after every storm or swelling of the waters. About two leagues beyond San Carlos, the little river Cenia, which is crossed by a bridge of one arch, and is dry in summer, separates Catalonia from the kingdom of Valencia.

The episcopal city of Tortosa, which the traveller leaves some leagues to his right in keeping the main

whether a person in the centre of Siberia, or in the neighbourhood of the Gulf of Bothnia, would think himself more completely cut off from the rest of the world." Since 1802, however, the road has, by royal orders, been much improved, and in dry weather is excellent.

road, is an ancient, and consequently an ugly town, situated on a declivity on the left bank of the Ebro, which is there crossed by a bridge of boats, four leagues from its mouth. It is divided into the old and new towns, both of which are walled, and contains five parish churches, and ten convents. "The cathedral is near the river, built under the protection of a castle. The front is Ionic, with massive pillars, some of which are of single stones, as are all those in the chapel of *N. Señora de la Cintra.* The whole edifice is devoid of taste, and the interior is loaded with preposterous ornaments. In the cloister is a chapel which carries marks of the most remote antiquity, with two little columns of porphyry, the one red, the other green, which look as if they had been made before the Flood. The *custodia* of solid silver, weighing fourteen arrobas, although not so ancient, is more to be admired for age than for the beauty of its workmanship." Tortosa carries on a considerable trade in corn and silk, and has a population, according to Bourgoing, of 16,000 souls. It was taken by the French in 1810. Within a league of the city are the quarries of marble, known by the name of Tortosa jasper.*

* "This city," says M. Peyron, "is said to have been builded 2000 years before the Christian era; but the proofs of this illustrious origin are unfortunately lost. Scipio gave it the name of Dordosa, and made it a municipal city. Among the numerous and trifling combats between the Spaniards and the Moors, there was one in which the women of Tortosa signalised themselves. They courageously mounted the ramparts of their city, and performed such prodigies of valour, that Raymond Berenger, the last Count of Barcelona, instituted for them, in 1170, the military order of the *Hacha,* or flambeau. They merited and obtained the same day, several honourable privileges, which exist not at present; they have, however, preserved the right of precedency in matrimonial ceremonies, let the rank of the men be ever so distinguished. The

In coming from Valencia, the flat roofs and the dialect of Catalonia first strike the attention of the traveller at the little port of Benicarlo, two leagues beyond the bridge over the Cenia. Mr. Swinburne noticed, almost as soon as he left Tortosa, the appearance of the Valencian costume,—a monstrous slouched hat, cropped hair without a net, a short brown jacket, white waistcoat and trowsers, stockings gartered below the knee, and packthread sandals; a dress differing not less remarkably than that of the Aragonese from the Catalonian. "The common dress of a Catalonian sailor or muleteer," Mr. Swinburne says, "is brown; and the distinctive mark by which they are known in Spain, is a red woollen cap, falling forwards, like that of the ancient Phrygians. The middling sort of people and artificers wear hats and dark clothes, with a half-wide coat carelessly tossed over the shoulders. The dress of the women is a black silk petticoat over a little hoop, shoes without heels, bare shoulders, and a black veil stiffened out with wire, so as to arch out on each side of the head, somewhat resembling the hooded serpent." The use of slouched hats, white shoes, and large brown cloaks, by the Catalonians, had been forbidden by Government! Till a few years before Swinburne visited the Peninsula, they had also been ignominiously prohibited from carrying any kind of weapon, even a knife: "in every public house, there was one chained to the table for the use of all comers." Such were the enlightened measures adopted by the court, with the view to break the haughty and independent spirit of

curious in ruins," it is added, "will find a considerable number in the esplanade of the castle. There are also several subterraneous caverns resembling the *masmoras* of Grenada: they appear to have been public granaries, like those of Burjasol near Valencia."

these mountaineers. Many of their ancient privileges had then, however, been gradually restored.

Swinburne describes the Catalonians generally, as a hardy, active, industrious race, of a middle stature, strong features, brown complexion, and well-knit limbs; inured, both by education and practice, to the greatest fatigue. Their *mocos*, or mule-boys, have been known to go from Barcelona to Madrid, and back again, a distance of 600 miles, in nine days. In the old wars between Aragon and France, their irregular militia, known under the name of *Almogavares* and *Miqueletes*, were, from their savage habits and appearance, and their dexterity in the use of the weapons, the terror of the enemy. "These men were originally the scouts and outposts of the Christians against the Moors, and lived in a perpetual state of warfare. When that contest was terminated, they became banditti in their own country, or soldiers of fortune abroad; and, losing their Moorish appellation, acquired their present name from *Michelot de Prats*, one of their leaders, who served with distinction in Italy, and became the companion of Cæsar Borgio, and the main agent in many of his atrocities. In Spain, the severity of the revenue-laws opened for bold and mutinous spirits the least injurious channel in which they could be employed; and they who in other times would have been robbers, became smugglers. Of such men, the Miqueletes consisted in the commencement of the late contest. Their hardy habits, their daring and adventurous disposition, and that intimate knowledge which, in the course of their former occupation, they had acquired of all the mountain paths, made them the best soldiers for such warfare as the state of Spain required; and the peasantry, or the citizens who, having been utterly ruined, had no other course left

them than to stand or fall with their country in the field, acquired the same title when they formed themselves into irregular companies. Their ingenuity supplied the deficiency of arms. They manufactured wooden cannons, close hooped with iron, and by means of this artillery, sometimes obtained advantages, particularly at Monresa, over their enemies." *

The dress of the Miquelets is thus described by

* Dr. Southey mentions a curious and characteristic incident, which occurred during the first year of the Peninsular war. The Somatenes, or armed population, had been called out to oppose the advance of the French army under General Schwartz, who were marching upon Manresa, with a view to gain possession of Lerida. "An odd accident deceived the French. There was among the Somatenes, a drummer, who had escaped from Barcelona. Little as the knowledge was, which this lad possessed of military manœuvres, it enabled him to assume authority among these armed peasants, and he performed the double duties of drummer and commander with singular good fortune. For the enemy inferred, from the sound of the drum which was regularly beaten, that the peasantry were supported by regular troops. There were Swiss in Lerida, and the regiment of Estremadura was in Tarrega: the apprehension, therefore, was not unreasonable; and after a short stand against a brisk fire, Schwartz determined upon retreating. The Somatenes, encouraged by success, and now increasing in number, pressed upon him; and the news of his defeat raised the country behind him, to his greater danger. He had to pass through the little town of Esparraguera, consisting of one narrow street nearly a mile in length. The inhabitants cut down trees, and brought out tables and benches to obstruct the way, and they stored the flat roofs of their houses with beams and stones. The head of the French column, ignorant of these preparations, entered the street at twilight; but having experienced the danger, Schwartz divided them into two bodies, one of which made its way on the outside of the town by the right, the other by the left. From this time, the retreat became disorderly; the enemy lost part of their artillery in crossing the Abrera; and had the people of Martorell acted upon the alert, like those of Esparraguera, and broken down the bridge over the Noya, the fugitives, for such they were now become, might probably all have been cut off. They entered Barcelona in great confusion and dismay."—SOUTHEY'S *Peninsular War*, vol. i. pp. 358, 9.

Swinburne: "They wear their hair in a silk net, called *garbin*, with a broad, silver-laced hat, squeezed flat, like those of the English sailors, hung on one side of their head; a handkerchief loosely tied round the neck; a short, striped waistcoat, and over it a red jacket, with large silver buttons, like bells, dangling from it; a blue shirt, bound with yellow tape, rolled several times round their waist, in which they carry their knife, handkerchief, &c. Over their jacket they wear two cross-belts, one to carry their ammunition, the other for their broad sword and pistols. On the left shoulder hangs a blue great coat, embroidered with white thread. Their breeches are blue-and-white-striped. Their stockings, rolled beneath the knee, and gartered with an enormous buckle and a bunch of black ribbons, reach only down to the ankle, where they tie several rounds of blue fillet very tight, to keep on their pack-thread sandals, called *alpargatas*, with hempen soles that seem scarcely to cover their toes."

The Catalonians, continues Mr. Swinburne, "cannot brook the thoughts of being menial servants in their own country; but will rather trudge it all over with a pedlar's pack on their shoulders, or run about upon errands, than be the head domestic in a Catalonian family. Far from home, however, they make excellent servants; and most of the principal houses of Madrid have Catalonians at the head of their affairs. They are the general muleteers and *caleseros* (calash-drivers) of Spain. You meet with them in every part of the kingdom. Their honesty, steadiness, and sobriety entitle them to the confidence of travellers; and their thirst after gain makes them bear with any hardships. With good words, you will always find them docile; but they cannot bear ill

usage or opprobrious language. Those who remain at home for the labours of the field, are exceedingly industrious. Their corn harvest is in May, or early in June. But their attention is chiefly turned to the cultivation of the vine, which they plant on the summits of their most rugged mountains. In many places, they carry up earth to fix the young set in; and in others, they have been known to let one another down from the brow of the rock by ropes, rather than suffer a good patch of soil to remain useless. Their vintages are commonly very plentiful. One autumn, there was such a superabundance of grapes, that, in many places, whole vineyards were left untouched, for want of vessels to hold the wine in; and notice was posted up upon the church-doors, that any one was at liberty to take away what quantity he pleased, on paying a small acknowledgment to the proprietor. The scarcity of corn, however, is sometimes felt, the whole principality not producing above half a year's provision. Without the importation from America, Sicily, and the North of Europe, it would run the risk of being famished. The exports consist of wine, brandies, salt, oil, (and fruits,) which are mostly taken in by foreign ships, at the little ports and roads along the coast, and are not brought to be shipped off at the capital. There are mines of lead, iron, copper, antimony, silver, and coal in the mountains; but they are ill-wrought, and turn to poor account.* The manufactures are of more importance."

* Coal is chiefly found in the district of Villa Franca; silver and copper abound in the *Valle de Aran*; and coal, silver, and gold have all been discovered in the vicinity of Lerida. "Some of these mines are too remote from water carriage; others cannot be worked to profit for want of timber."—TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 344. If fuel be meant, the existence of coal would obviate the difficulty.

Catalonia enjoys the privilege of exemption from the "stagnating influence" of the *alcavala*, *cientos*, and *millones*; in lieu of which, an income-tax of ten *per cent.* is levied on all rents, whether belonging to individuals or to communities, as well as on the supposed gains of all merchants and mechanics.* The produce of these taxes amounted, in 1721, to 128,000*l.* sterling; but Mr. Townsend supposes the total revenue drawn from this province to have amounted, in 1787, to little less than a million sterling. This, according to the computed population, would be *20s.* annually for each person;† whereas, taking the whole Peninsula together, the Spaniards paid no more than 10*s.* each per annum. The more rapid circulation of money in this province, and its freedom from the dead weight of the alcavala, more than compensated for the comparative heaviness of the contribution. Artists and manufacturers are as much honoured and respected in Catalonia, as in other provinces they are despised and treated with contempt; and foreigners more easily obtain a footing. But that which contributes most to the wealth and prosperity of Catalonia, is the power which gentlemen of landed property have over their estates, to grant a species of lease called establishment by *emfiteutic* contracts. By this means, the great proprietor can grant any given quantity of land for a

* Labourers paid 8⅓ *per cent*, supposing them to work a hundred days in the year, at three reals per day. Artists and manufacturers contributed in the same proportion annually for a hundred and eighty days. Oxen, kine, horses, mules, sheep, lambs, pigs, &c., paid, per annum, according to the size of the species, from one-third of a real to three reals each.

† In the year 1768, when the bishops gave an account of the population in their respective dioceses, the returns were: men, 189,252; women, 192,763; boys, 313,079; girls, 320,916; clergy, regular and secular, 14,235 (every fourteenth man); total, 1,030,245.

term of years, either absolute or conditional, either for lives or in perpetuity, always reserving a quit-rent, like our English copyholds, with a relief on every succession, a fine on the alienation of the land, and other seignorial rights dependent on the custom of the district. When his term expires, the tenant must, on quitting, be paid for his improvements before he can be legally ejected.* To this power of making emfiteutic contracts, has with reason been attributed the cultivation of such waste lands as are most susceptible of tillage, and the consequent increase of population. In contrast to this, it may be mentioned, that Andalusia, although more fertile than either Catalonia or Galicia, is destitute of industry, because, the land being occupied by a few proprietors, the bulk of the people are day-labourers, who only find occasional employment. "Hence, clothed in rags and wretchedness, they crowd into cities, where they obtain a precarious livelihood through the bounty of rich ecclesiastics. Not merely in Andalusia, but in other provinces, the great estates being strictly entailed and administered on the proprietor's account, little land is to be rented by the farmer, less can be purchased by the monied man, and, for want of floating property, industry is left to languish. In Catalonia, it is totally the reverse of this."

Valencia, on which we now enter, is one of the smallest provinces of Spain, being only sixty-seven leagues in length, and varying in breadth from six to twenty leagues.† Murcia joins it on the south, and,

* See for further details respecting these tenures, Townsend's Journey, vol. iii. pp. 328—333.

† Cavanillas, appointed by the Spanish Government, in 1791, to take a survey of the country, computes the whole surface of Valencia at 838 Spanish square leagues, of which 240 are plains or

on the west, it borders on New Castile and Aiagor. No sooner does the traveller enter it, than he begins to perceive a change in the climate. "The days" (in November), says Swinburne, "are troublesomely hot, the nights soft and mild, like our fine summer evenings. The numberless creeks and bays, the bold promontories, each with its slender tower, of various shapes and dimensions, the green woody vales, with rocks impending over them, are scenes not outdone by any country." The scarcity of water, however, on part of this coast, is a serious inconvenience. Of the innumerable beds of rivers and torrents between Barcelona and Nules, six only had any water in them when Mr. Swinburne took this road; viz. the Llobregat, the Gaya, the Francolis, the Ebro, the Cenia, and the Mijares; and two of these are dry during the hot weather. The tract between the latter two rivers is, for the most part, a rich, red soil, covered with vineyards; but the vintage is frequently injured by the excessive heats. Provisions are very scarce here, no kind of meat being killed, except kid. In the spring, goats' milk is plentiful; but the peasants in the adjacent mountains subsist, for the greater part of the year, upon the acorns of the evergreen oak roasted; "a food," says Swinburne, "which we found surprisingly savoury and palatable, but not very nourishing." Lucerne, mixed with the bean of the locust-

valleys; the rest mountains, the half of which are uncultivated, but fit for pasture. In 1600, he says, this province contained 100,000 houses. In 1609, 200,000 Moors, the half of the population, were expelled; and after the wars, only 255,080 inhabitants remained. In 1761, the population amounted to 604,612; in 1768, to 716,866; and according to a census taken in 1787, the number was 783,084. Prior to the late French invasions, the population of Valencia was greatly on the increase; but it has not yet been publicly ascertained, how much it has suffered in these calamitous times.

tree, supplies provender for the mules. The proprietors of the vineyards reside up in the mountain villages, and are always distressed for money, notwithstanding the sure and ready sale of their wines. Few vales surpass in beauty the noble and populous plain of Margal, over which lies the road from Benicarlo to Castellon de la Llana. The sea, which hereabouts abounds with sharks, forms a picturesque bay on the one hand, and on the other is an amphitheatre of mountains. The locust-trees and olives are old and branchy, the soil deep, and little canals from the hills irrigate the ground, and render it very fertile. The road alternately skirts the shore, and climbs up wild, rocky hills, covered with rosemary, thyme, lavender, and juniper-trees. Sometimes it runs along the edge of frightful precipices, where a crumbling parapet is all that guards the traveller against being hurled by a false step to the bottom, where the sea dashes against the shore. All this range is composed of limestone

Castellon de la Llana contains one parish church and six convents, with a population (in 1787) of 10,700 souls. "The chapel of *La Sangre*," says Mr. Townsend, "is light, elegant, and well proportioned, fitted up entirely by a young artist, who is indebted to himself alone for the refinement of his taste, because he had no instructor, nor one good model in the place by which he might improve. Few villages can boast a richer collection of pictures. The major part are by Francisco Ribalta, a native of Castellon. In the chapel of La Sangre are frescoed some good pictures of Bergara; and the Capuchins are much indebted to Zurbaran for some of his best works. At the altar of the great church is the Assumption of the Virgin by Carlo Maratti." The only observation which Mr. Swinburne makes at this place, is on the

remarkable ugliness of the women. Mr. Townsend made inquiries here respecting the aqueduct of Almasora, by which this extensive plain receives water from the Mijares. He was informed, that he had crossed it, without being aware of the circumstance, soon after passing the new bridge over that river; but, for almost the whole distance from S. Quiteria to Almasora, it is a tunnel cut through the limestone rock. This "stupendous" work has been ascribed both to the Romans and the Moors; but, says our Traveller, "I am well informed, that *Jayme el Conquistador* is alone entitled to the praise. It was executed in the year 1240. In comparison with this, how contemptible is the *montagne percée* in Languedoc, for which Louis XIV. received the most fulsome adulation!"

Villa Real, the next town, situated in the midst of an extensive plain watered by the Mijares, was originally only a country-house of Jayme I. King of Aragon; it now gives the title of marquess to a noble family. It was destroyed, with all its inhabitants, in the Succession war, but has since been rebuilt, and has now a population of 5,500 souls. The next place in the route is Nules, a walled town, with towers *alla morisca*, and four gates; containing, together with its two handsome suburbs, between 3 and 4,000 inhabitants. It is a day's journey from Tortosa. Mr. Townsend observed here a number of caves, said to be five hundred in number, from eight to twelve feet in diameter, and from twelve to twenty feet deep, sunk in the limestone rock. They were designed for granaries, which purpose they still serve. The marquesate of Nules was at this time in abeyance, the title being disputed by seventeen claimants. The road from this place crosses the extensive and fertile plain of Alme-

nara, described by Swinburne "as a kind of land bay, surrounded by lofty mountains, and adorned with six pretty towns, rising out of the bosom of a forest of dark and light greens, of every variety of tint. The long range of turrets upon the hill of Murviedro (once the too faithful Saguntum*), juts out, towards the sea, from the chain of mountains that runs parallel with the coast, and divides the vale of Almenara from that of Valencia." Almenara is a walled town, with suburbs and a ruined castle. The other towns are mere villages. At Villa Vieja, the first of these after leaving Nules, there are mineral springs. On this plain, Philip V. was defeated in person in a sanguinary action, by the Austrian general, Stahremberg, on the 27th of July, 1709.

MURVIEDRO.

MURVIEDRO (a name derived from *muri veteres*, or *muros viejos*) is on every account one of the most interesting spots in the Peninsula. The town itself is gloomy, surrounded with lofty walls, the streets crooked and steep, and the houses have a wretched appearance; but the suburbs are airy and pleasant. The population is about 5,000. Mr. Swinburne gives the following description of this celebrated site:—

* Saguntum, according to Livy, had acquired immense riches, as well by commerce as by agriculture, by just laws, and a good police; but the treasures fell not into the hands of the ruthless conqueror. The inhabitants made a resistance of eight months, and, not receiving the succours they expected from their allies, fed upon the flesh of their children, and afterwards turned their rage upon themselves. They erected an immense pile of wood, and, after setting fire to it, precipitated their women, their slaves, their treasures, and finally themselves into the flames; so that Hannibal, instead of a lucrative conquest, found only a heap of ashes. This wanton and unprovoked aggression is well known to have occasioned the second Punic war. Saguntum was rebuilt by the Romans.

"The present town is very considerable, and seems to stand upon the same ground as the ancient Roman city; but, in all probability, the Saguntum which was destroyed by Hannibal, was built upon the summit of the hill. That the Romans also had a fortress on the top, is clear, from the large stones and regular masonry, upon which the Saracens afterwards erected their castle.* Half-way up the rock are the ruins of the theatre, in sufficient preservation to give a tolerable idea of its size and distribution. It is an exact semicircle, about eighty-two yards in diameter from outside to outside: the length of the orchestra, or inner diameter, is twenty-four. The seats for the audience, the staircases and passages of communication, the *vomitoria*, and the arched porticoes, are still easily traced. The back part rests against the hill, and some of the galleries are cut out of the rock. Two walls going off at an angle, serve to turn off the rainwater that washes down from the cliff behind. As the spectators faced the north and east, and were sheltered from the west and south, nothing could be more agreeable in this climate, than such a

* Mr. Bourgoing, describing the spot, says: "The castles which command the town, may be seen at the distance of two leagues. You would take them at first for the remains of the ramparts which the intrepid Saguntines defended with such obstinacy against the Carthaginian hero; but you afterwards learn that they were erected by the Moors. On the heights upon which those castles are situated, they built seven fortresses, communicating with each other by subterraneous passages, some of which are still almost entire. It appears, that Saguntum reached no higher than half-way up these hills, and stood chiefly in the plain towards the sea, extending considerably beyond the present site of Murviedro; since Livy informs us, that it was only a thousand paces from it, and Murviedro is a long league from the Mediterranean. In confirmation of this opinion, it is remarked, that no relics of the Carthaginians and Romans have been found nearer to the Moorish fortresses, than the foot of the hill upon which they stand."

place of entertainment, open to every pleasant and salubrious breeze, and defended from all winds that might bring them heat or noxious vapours. It is computed, that 9,000 persons might be present without inconvenience at the exhibitions in this theatre.* The silence that reigns in this august ruin, which anciently resounded with the applauses of proconsuls and Roman citizens, is now broken only by the *seguidillas* of a few rope-makers, who have patched up a straw shed against the stage, and spin out their work across the *proscenium*, regardless of the surrounding scenery.

"From the theatre, we climbed up to the summit of the mountain, which is about a mile in length, and not a tenth as wide; quite a narrow ridge, covered with ruins and Moorish bulwarks. A few uninteresting inscriptions, two mutilated statues, the vestiges of the floor of a temple, and some Roman arches over a large cistern, are all the antiquities we found. The fortifications divide the hill into several courts, with double and triple walls, erected upon huge masses of rock, laid in regular courses by the Romans.† What

* "Many persons," says Bourgoing, "may find it difficult to conceive how the actors were able to make themselves heard in the open air by so numerous an audience. I ascertained, in 1783, that this was possible, by going to the top of the amphitheatre, while certain sentences were repeated by a lad stationed on the spot formerly occupied by the stage."

† The characteristics of the Moorish military architecture are:—a wall built by means of square forms of wood, into which a mortar composed of pebbles, mixed with strong cement, is run, and left a certain time to harden,—then the boards are taken away, but the marks remain, and give the wall an appearance of masonry;—battlements, perpendicularly placed on the wall, not projecting over, nor with borders round, as in the Norman and Gothic castles, where the hollows behind the battlements served to throw stones and combustibles through, as the enemy approached to scale them;

was wanting in interesting antiquities in the castle, was amply made up by the prospect, of the beauties of which no pen can convey an adequate idea. The vale of Almenara on the north, is so delightful, that from any other station it would have engrossed all our attention; but we soon neglected its beauties, and gliding rapidly over the immense volume of sea stretched out before us to the eastward, where the sunbeams played in full force, we fixed our eyes on the almost boundless plain of Valencia that lay to the south. It is four leagues in breadth from the sea to the hills in the widest part, and in length, five times that extent, losing itself in a ridge of distant mountains. The yellow-green of the mulberry plantations, and the paler hue of the olive-trees, regularly planted in fields of bright green corn; that regularity now and then broken by large plots of dark-coloured locust-trees, villages, and convents, thickly scattered over this great expanse, with numberless gay, slender steeples; the city of Valencia about twelve miles off, with all its spires; these objects united, form the most inimitable landscape it is possible to conceive. From hence to Valencia is one perfect garden, so thickly planted with trees, that there is no seeing at any distance on either side. Villages and monasteries occur every hundred yards; and such crowds of people on the road, as I scarcely ever saw, but in the neighbourhood of London. All the grounds are divided

a gateway, turned in an arch, neither pointed, like what we call Gothic, nor semicircular like the Grecian; but one, the posts of which resting upon the imposts, come much further in towards each other, and form the figure of a horse-shoe. Sometimes, but very seldom, the Moors employed stones of a large size and more regular cut; and some few of their arches may be found, that are sharp like the Gothic; but they are probably of the latter times of the Moorish empire in Spain."

into small compartments by water-channels, the work of the Moors, who understood the art of watering land in the utmost perfection. The ruinous state these drains are now in, proves the indolence and inferiority of the present proprietors."

Stones, with Phœnician or Latin inscriptions, we are told by M. Bourgoing, are still found scattered through Murviedro. If any of the former are to be found, and are still legible, they will peculiarly deserve the attention of the antiquary. But the latter, it is added, are the most numerous. "Some of them are introduced into walls; and five, in excellent preservation, may be seen in those of a church. A few are to be met with on the side of the hill, and even still higher; but they were probably carried thither by the Moors, together with other stones for the purpose of building. Thus, in one of the walls of their ancient fortresses, we find an antique statue of white marble without a head, and some stones with inscriptions, but in an inverted position. The monuments whose ruins are still to be seen at Murviedro, were founded at the period when the Romans, after the valiant defence of the Saguntines and the destruction of their city, rebuilt the place, and made it one of their *municipia*. It became one of the most flourishing towns they possessed out of Italy. Among other edifices, it contained a temple of Bacchus, some relics of which are to be seen to the left, near the entrance of Murviedro. Its mosaic pavement, which negligence had nearly suffered to be lost, has been taken up, and deposited in the archiepiscopal library.

"You may still discover the foundation of the ancient circus of Saguntum, upon which now stand the walls that serve to enclose a long succession of orchards. This circus, as it is easy to perceive, extended to a

small river, the bed of which only remains, and which was the chord of the segment formed by the circus. When the Saguntines exhibited the mock sea-fights, called *naumachia*, this bed was undoubtedly filled by the tributes of the neighbouring canals, which still exist. But, of all that remains at Saguntum, nothing is in such good preservation as the theatre. You perceive very distinctly the different rows of seats occupied by the citizens according to their rank. At the bottom, in the place allotted in our theatres to the orchestra, were the seats of the magistrates; next, those for the equestrian order; and then, those for the body of the people. You may still see the two doorways by which the magistrates entered; two others, exclusively reserved for the knights; and almost at the top of the amphitheatre, which continues without interruption from the bottom upwards, you observe the two passages by which the multitude withdrew, and which the ancients, on that account, denominated *vomitoria*. Lastly, you find still entire, the higher seats, which were appropriated to the lictors and the courtezans. The semicircular crest of the whole edifice is also in perfect preservation. You may even perceive on the outside, the projecting stones, in which were inserted the bars that served to spread the horizontal covering of cloth, which sheltered the spectators from the sun and rain; for the ancients, in their public exhibitions, foresaw and provided for every contingency. Every person had a seat, and was screened from the weather. All possible precautions were taken to prevent disorder. A place which may still be seen, was set apart for the judges. If any spectator drew upon himself their animadversion, they directed the lictors to seize and convey him to a particular chamber, to which they had access by a private

staircase. Here they interrogated him; and if they found him culpable, he was confined till the conclusion of the exhibition in a prison under the chamber in which he was examined."

It was in digging to make a road from Valencia to Murviedro, in 1755, that the mosaic pavement was discovered at the entrance of this town, measuring 24 feet by 14, entire, and of great beauty. "Ferdinand VI. ordered it to be enclosed with walls, but the king's intentions were not properly fulfilled; the gates were suffered to remain open, and every one carried away some part of the pavement, which consequently soon became despoiled. Some fragments of it still exist in several houses of Murviedro. A priest of that town took a drawing of it, which he had afterwards painted on tiles, and paved an apartment of his house with them. It was likewise copied with the greatest exactness, with small stones perfectly similar, in an apartment of the library of the archiepiscopal palace at Valencia. In 1787, an effort was made by the corregidor of Murviedro, to "restore animation to this skeleton of a Roman theatre," which had been partially repaired and cleared of the rope-makers, by the representation of a Spanish comedy within its walls. In 1796, the then Captain-general of Valencia carried these repairs still further; and Don Francisco Bamahonda, a Valencian poet, composed a tragedy, the subject of which was the siege of Saguntum, for the express purpose of being performed on this proud spot. The plan, however, does not appear to have been carried into execution."*

* M. Bourgoing remarks, that it was "Townsend, an English traveller, who chiefly contributed to excite the transient attention bestowed on this monument of antiquity." This is a mistake. Mr. Townsend despatches them in a few sentences, with the brief

At a league and a half from Murviedro, is "a long range of inns," called *Mesones de Puzol.* The town of that name is on the left of the road; it contains about 1,500 inhabitants. The plain of Valencia, on which the road has now entered, is celebrated for the victory gained here in 1237, over the Moorish king Zaen, by Jayme el Conquistador, which led to the conquest of Valencia. It is so thickly covered now with olive-trees and vines, that the traveller, after passing through several villages, reaches the suburbs of the city before he is aware of being near it. The approach from Mesanasa on the road to Murcia, is by a magnificent avenue of alders and poplars, a league in length, extending to the very gates. The scenery is described to be that of a terrestrial paradise. All is life and

remark, that they had been "often and well described by others." Mr. Swinburne, who travelled ten years before Mr. Townsend, has furnished the description above cited. M. Peyron has given several inscriptions, copied from stones inserted in the walls of the modern buildings, in which occur the names of Emilius, Fabius, Acilius, the Calphurnian family, and several other illustrious persons of ancient Rome. Two are in an unknown character, supposed to be Celtiberian or Carthaginian. They appear to belong either to an early Greek alphabet, or to the parent of the Greek. The letters Δ.H.I.Λ.N.V.X.Ψ. though rude, are, in Bourgoing's work, clearly defined. Three pieces of a battering ram are preserved in Murviedro. "I saw one in the castle," says this Traveller, "which I should have suspected to be the axle-tree of some enormous carriage, made to carry the materials employed in that vast edifice.... The city of Murviedro is full of the remains of its antiquity: the walls of the houses, the city gates, and the doors of the churches and inns are covered with Roman inscriptions. The poet Argensola truly says:

Con marmoles de nobles inscripciones,
Theatro un tiempo y aras en Saguntho,
Fabrican hoy tabernas y mesones.

The place upon which the convent of the Trinitarians now stands, was formerly the site of a temple dedicated to Diana. A part of the materials served to build the church, and the rest were sold to build *San Miguel de los Reyes*, near Valencia."

animation. The country is studded with villages; the roads swarm with passengers; the fields are covered with labourers; and the trees look as green and vernal in December as they do elsewhere in May.

VALENCIA.

MORE has been written upon Valencia, than upon any other city in Spain. Its ancient name is unknown, but it bore its present appellation under the Romans. Though eclipsed by its more illustrious neighbour, Saguntum, it was even then a considerable town. It is said to have been taken and fortified by Scipio, destroyed by Pompey, and rebuilt by Sertorius. It was taken from the Romans by the Goths, and from the latter, in 715, by the Moors. In 1094, it was recovered from them by the famous Cid Ruy Diaz de Bivar, the Prince Arthur of Spanish romance; and for four years, the city bore the name of Valencia of the Cid. The Moors, however, retook it; but it was finally conquered from them in 1238, by King Jayme, and subsequently enlarged and embellished by Pedro IV., King of Aragon. It is said to have been peopled by King Jayme with Catalonians from Tortosa, Tarragona, Gerona, and Lerida, together with a number of settlers from the southern provinces of France, to which circumstance has been ascribed the lively and volatile cast of character by which the Valencians are distinguished.

The city stands in the midst of an extensive plain, upon the right bank of the Guadalaviar or Turia, which washes its walls, separating it from part of the suburbs, and half a league from the sea. It is, according to M. Peyron, about half a league in circumference. 'The walls, he adds, are built for ornament,

rather than for defence. No city, perhaps, has been the subject of so very various representations. Mariana, the historian, has given a description of it, much more poetical than accurate, and others have even exaggerated his panegyric. The following is Swinburne's laconic but accurate description.

"This city is large, and almost circular. Its lofty walls have towers remaining in one quarter: the rest have been demolished. A fine broad road goes quite round it. The two suburbs are considerable.* Several large, clumsy bridges cross the bed where the river should run; but either from drought, or from the many bleedings it undergoes above, for the purpose of watering the fields, there is scarcely water enough in the Guadalaviar to wash a handkerchief. But, in rainy seasons, the floods are tremendous. The captain-general resides in the suburbs, in an uncouth Gothic palace at the entrance of the *Alameda*, a long double avenue of poplars, cypresses, and palms, where, on festivals, the nobility take the air in their carriages. About a mile below is the *Grao*, or port of Valencia, which, properly speaking, is only an open road, the mole having been swept away by some violent storm. The dusty highway from the city hither, is the fashionable drive; and for the accommodation of such as have no carriages of their own, several single-horse chairs wait at all hours at the gates. This vehicle is very uneasy, and open to all weathers, but the horses are excellent, and run along like lightning. The driver sits sideways at your feet, and all the way keeps chattering to the horse, and patting him.

* There are now five suburbs, which altogether contain a larger population than the town itself; viz. *Quarte, San Vicente, La Trinidad, Murviedro,* and that of the sea gate, or *Del Remedio.*—La Borde.

"The streets of Valencia are crooked and narrow: not being paved, they are full of dust in dry weather, and in wet, knee-deep in mud. The reason alleged for this scandalous neglect is, that by these means a greater quantity of manure is produced, which, in a plain so full of gardens, is of inestimable value. Various and overpowering are the stinks that rise up in every corner, in which respect, as well as in many others, this country resembles Lombardy. The houses are filthy, ill-built, and ruinous; and most of the churches are tawdry, and loaded with barbarous ornaments both without and within. The most agreeable architecture I met with, is in the church of the *Escuelas Pias*, and of *Nuestra Señora de los Desamparados*, both rotundas. In the multitude of sacred edifices, some may be found that excel in particular parts; one may please the eye by the just proportions of its dimensions; another strike by the richness of its marbles and paintings; but, in all, the judicious observer will be disgusted with loads of garlands, pyramids, broken pediments, and monstrous cornices, —a taste too Gothic and trifling for any thing but the front of a mountebank's booth, or a puppet-show in a fair. Some churches have domes, but the greater part have tall, slender turrets, painted and bedecked with all sorts of pilasters and whimsical devices. Every thing is gilt and bedaubed with incredible profusion. The Spaniards understand the gilder's business perfectly; and the purity of their gold, with the dryness of their climate, preserves their work for years in its primitive lustre. The convent of the Franciscan friars has something very grand and pleasing in its double court, which is divided by a light wing upon an open portico, with fountains playing in each division."

"The cathedral is a large Gothic pile. Its archbishopric is one of the best in Spain, said to bring in about 40,000*l.* sterling a year, paid in cash into the hands of two receivers. The revenues of Toledo are much greater, but also more troublesome to collect, and more precarious, as being paid in kind, and requiring a great number of bailiffs and servants.

"Priests, nuns, and friars of every dress and denomination, swarm in this city, where some convents have more than a hundred monks, all richly provided for.

"Among the other public buildings, many of which are prettily set off with painted architecture, after the Italian manner, the palaces of *Dosaguas* and *Jura Real* deserve the most notice; the former for its statues and fresco paintings, the latter for the elegant simplicity of its front. The *lonja*, or exchange, is a very noble hall, built about the latter end of the fifteenth century, with all the beauty and richness of which that style is susceptible. The custom-house, where the intendant and other officers of the revenue are lodged, is a new large edifice in a great square, a very clumsy mass of brick and stone.

"The number of inhabitants is computed at 100,000; but, to speak more exactly, according to the last authentic enumeration, made in 1768, which allows four persons to each *vecino* (housekeeper), at 20,000 *vecinos*, or fathers of families, which makes the number to be 80,000 inhabitants." *

Next follows Mr. Townsend, whose account is somewhat more favourable. "The streets," he says, "are narrow, crooked, and not paved, yet, they are clean, and therefore healthy. In a city like Valencia, we

* Laborde adopts the same official data; but supposes that the suburbs, though included in the account, should furnish the difference. In the above estimate, however, the clergy are not included.

naturally expect to see many convents: there are no fewer than forty-four, nearly divided between the monks and the nuns. Besides these, we find ten churches belonging to congregations, colleges, and hospitals.....Of the public buildings, the cathedral is without comparison the most worthy of attention: it is of Grecian architecture, light, elegant, and highly finished, more especially in the dome and in six of the larger chapels. Altogether, I never saw a more pleasing structure.....There are in all fifty-four altars, at most of which incense is daily offered. The great altar, 30 feet high by 18 wide, is of silver; and the image of the Virgin, six feet high, is of the same material: the workmanship of both is admirable. On the altar, in eight several compartments, are represented, in bold relief, as many sacred subjects, executed by the best masters who lived at the close of the fifteenth century. These are protected by folding-doors, of greater value for their paintings, than the altar itself for the silver which it contains. The subjects are twelve, six on the outside, and as many on the inside, the production of Francis Neapoli and Paul Aregio. In the sacristy, I saw a massive sepulchre of silver gilt, designed for the reception of the host on Good Friday; a magnificent throne and opy of silver, for Easter Sunday; and, of the same metal, two *custodias*, one with Corinthian columns and images of the two patron saints, the other twelve feet high, with a gold border, innumerable gems, and a little image of St. Michael the archangel, composed entirely of brilliants. This was added to the treasures of the church in the year 1452. All the best pictures are disposed in the sacristy and chapter-house. Those by the Canon Victoria, and by Vergara, are excellent; but the most beautiful,—indeed, little inferior to

Raphael's,—are many by Juanes, more especially his Holy Family, in the chapter-house, and his *Ecce Homo*, in a chapel of that name. Among the relics, those held in the highest estimation are, many thorns of the Redeemer's crown; the curious cup from which he drank at his last supper; and a wretched picture of the Virgin, painted by St. Luke!

"In the convents I found some good pictures, more especially in those belonging to the two Carmelites, the Capuchins, the Dominicans, the Franciscans, the Augustines, the convent allotted to the Nuns of Jerusalem, and the congregation of San Felipe Neri. In these, the artists whose works claim the highest admiration are, Jacinto de Espinosa, Juan Bautista Juanes, Francisco Ribalta, Don Joseph Ramirez, Vicente Victoria, who was a disciple of Carlo Maratti, with many others, all natives of Valencia. In the church of San Juan de Mercado, the roof is painted in fresco by Palomino, who was likewise of Valencia. The famous Supper of Ribalta is in the college of Corpus Christi. This seminary is worthy of attention, not merely for the pictures, which are beautiful, but for the library, which is well chosen, considering the age in which the Patriarch of Antioch lived. He finished his college in the year 1604, and all the books were collected by himself. Among the relics in the sacristy, I noticed a piece of sculpture so minute, that, in the size of an octavo volume, it contained more than a hundred figures, carved with the greatest elegance and truth. In this college, twenty-three masses are repeated daily for the dead; and for each, the officiating priest receives four reals. In Spain, few people of distinction die without making a provision for this purpose; but, as the religious houses sometimes receive the legacy, and neglect the obligation connected

with it, this proves a source of frequent litigation between the community and the friends of the deceased.

" Of all the parish churches, not one besides San Nicolas appeared worthy of attention. In this, I admired the roof, executed in fresco by Vidal, a disciple of Palomino, and the dome, painted by Victoria. San Tomas of Villanueva, does credit to the pencil of Vergara. Three pictures by Espinosa, and two by Juanes, of which one is the Last Supper, painted by that great master for the altar, must be reckoned among the finest pictures of Valencia.

" The revenue of the religious houses is said to be considerable. The most wealthy society in Valencia is the one last established; for, when the convent of Montesa was destroyed by the earthquake of 1748, the monks removed their habitation and settled here. They had recently fitted up their church with much taste, and at a considerable expense. This they can well afford, since, for the maintenance of four-and-twenty friars, they have a net income, amounting nearly to 14,000*l.* a year.

" The university of Valencia is a respectable community. It was founded at the solicitation of San Vicente Ferrier, A.D. 1411; and soon after its institution, Don Alonso III. of Aragon granted the privilege of nobility to all the students who should graduate in law. It was lately much on the decline; but the present rector has raised the reputation of his seminary, and they now reckon 2,400 students. When I was at Valencia, he was just returned from Madrid, with his new plan of study, approved of by his majesty (22d Dec., 1786). The professors are nearly seventy in number: viz. seven for the languages (including Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and Arabic), four for the

mathematics, six for logic, metaphysics, &c., eleven for medicine and chemistry, nineteen for civil and canon law, and eighteen for theology and ecclesiastical history.* During the month of June, all the students are publicly examined. Their library contains many thousand volumes, mostly modern and well chosen, all collected by D. Francisco Perez Bayer, and presented by him to this university. Besides this library, four galleries in the archbishop's palace are devoted to the same purpose, and contain thirty-two thousand volumes, among which are many modern publications in every branch of literature. The rudiments of this collection, at the expulsion of the Jesuits, about the year 1759, consisted only of their spoils; but the worthy prelates who have been honoured with the crosier in this city, have swelled the catalogue by the addition of not a few among the many valuable productions which have appeared in Europe since the commencement of the present (eighteenth) century. *Should literature revive in Spain, I am inclined to think it will be at Valencia.* Men of genius are not wanting there; and whenever they shall take the pen, no press can do more justice to their works than the one established in that city. Whoever has had an opportunity of seeing a valuable work of Francisco Perez Bayer, on the Hebræo-Samaritan coins, printed by Montfort, will agree with me in opinion, that no nation can boast of a superior work.†

* This enumeration makes them only sixty-five. Of these, twenty-four were temporary professors, or assistants, chosen for a time, and changed in rotation; the others were permanent.

† "Valencia," says M. Peyron, "was, for a long time, the city in which a greater number of books were printed, than in any other in Spain. It had paper-manufactories under the Moors, in the twelfth century, and was the first town in Spain into which the art of printing was introduced. There is a Sallust, and a Latin Voca-

"In traversing the city to view whatever was most worthy of attention, and considering its flourishing condition and the opulence of the citizens, whether merchants, manufacturers, ecclesiastics, the military, or gentlemen of landed property, I was struck with the sight of poverty, of wretchedness, and of rags in every street. The *hospicio*, or general work-house, provides for 220 men, 150 boys, 280 women, and 90 girls, who are all well fed, well clothed, and well lodged; yet, the city swarms with sturdy beggars. I suspected, however, what I found to be the case, that the ecclesiastics distribute money, and that the convents administer bread and broth every day at noon, to all who make application at their gates. This circumstance will sufficiently account for the multitude of miserable objects who, in Valencia, as in all places, bear exact proportion to the undistinguishing benevolence of wealth. When in health, the most lazy can never be in want of bread; and when ill, they have an hospital always open to receive them. Should the indolent and vicious be induced to abandon their offspring, the same hospital will provide for the helpless infant, a cradle and a grave."*

bulary, under the title of *Comprehensorium*, printed at Valencia in 1475." There are still some excellent presses here.—LABORDE, vol. i. p. 221. BOURGOING, vol. iv. p. 87.

* Townsend, vol. iii. pp. 237, 252. In the year 1786, of the peasants and common people, 4,800 were received into the general hospital, of whom 639 (nearly a seventh) died; and of the military, 890 were received, of whom only 27 died: a proof of what has been already stated at p. 88, that the lower classes are hurried away to the hospital when near death, to save the expense of burial. The foundlings were 332, of whom 159 died. In a population estimated at 100,000 souls, the marriages, on the average of two years (1782 and 1786), were 681, the births, 2,600, the burials, 2,525. According to this estimate, the foundlings were nearly *one-eighth* of the births; and of the burials, about a fourth were from the hospitals.

With this representation of the state of things given by the English Traveller, M. Bourgoing's account generally agrees, although some further particulars are added upon more recent information. "The capital of Valencia," he says, "though not, strictly speaking, a handsome city, is at least a very agreeable place to reside in, especially of late years, since the establishment of a vigilant police, which is not less attentive to its embellishment than to its security. Though its streets are unpaved, they are kept extremely clean. The soil, which is frequently removed, serves to manure the vast orchards which surround Valencia on every side.* Idleness and indigence are banished from this city, where artisans of every description find work.† In 1783, nearly four thousand silk-looms and frames of different dimensions gave employment to upwards of twenty thousand of the inhabitants, exclusive of those who prepare the wood and iron work of so great a number of machines, and

* Laborde says: "The streets are covered with sand, which is at first very inconvenient, but it makes a smooth road when it has been pressed by the horses and carriages; yet, when it rains, the wet sand stops the water, and the streets are then impassable. From time to time, this sand is taken to manure the land, and is replaced by fresh. This custom, which is very inconvenient, could not be easily suppressed. The Valencians are generally persuaded that this sand is full of salt particles, and that the neighbouring fields owe to it in part their fertility; and this prejudice is so inveterate, that it would probably raise a riot, were it attempted to pave the streets. Most of the streets have cavities under them, which pass under the houses, and serve as sewers: they are large and well built. Tradition, true or false, declares them to be the work of the Romans."

† This representation requires to be qualified by the fact, already adverted to, that mendicity prevails here to a great extent. Laborde says, "it is impossible to go into the streets, particularly in the night, without being assailed by a crowd of these wretches"—the sturdy beggars.

such as are engaged in spinning, winding, and dyeing the silk. This prosperity has progressively increased since 1783; and I am assured, that of late years, Valencia has contained eight thousand looms and frames of every description.*

"The silk-manufactures are not the only source of employment possessed by the Valencians. They supply the royal arsenals with a considerable quantity of hemp. They have manufactures of woollen cloths and camlets in their capital, and fifty paper-mills scattered throughout their country. Their wines and brandies are exported in great quantities, not only to England, Jersey, Holland, and the North, by way of Dunkirk, where most of the brandy denominated

* During the Peninsular war, the Government had recourse, on two occasions, to that extraordinary levy of men known in Spain under the appellation of *quinta;* but all journeymen employed in any manner in the silk-manufactures were exempted from the ballot. In the city of Valencia, this exemption extended to upwards of 3,000 individuals. It is computed, that the quantity of silk manufactured in Valencia amounts, on the average, to one million of pounds annually. Its exportation is strictly prohibited; but, notwithstanding the vigilance of the administration, part of the silk of Valencia has found its way out of the kingdom under the name of Murcian silk, which is of an inferior quality, and not so strictly forbidden to be exported. The consequence has been, that, in bad years, the workmen of Valencia have been idle for want of materials; and it has even been found necessary to import the article from France. The silk of Valencia may be compared in fineness with the best of Europe; but the spinning is still imperfect. The Granada silk, however, is esteemed the best of all, although the trees in that kingdom are all *morales*, black mulberry-trees; those which cover the plain of Valencia, are of the white kind, *moreras*. The great nurseries of mulberry-plants in this plain are produced from seed, obtained by rubbing a rope of *esparto* over heaps of ripe mulberries, and then burying the rope two inches under ground. As the young plants come up, they are drawn and transplanted. The trees, which are set out in rows, are here pruned every second year; in Murcia, only every third year; in Granada never.—Bourgoing, vol. i. pp. 243, 259.

Valencian was some time since made, but also, for several years past, to Spanish America. The wines and brandies of Valencia even find their way up the Loire to the environs of Orleans, where they are bought up by the French merchants, who mix them with their brandies, to make them of a superior quality.

"Rice is another source of wealth to the inhabitants of Valencia; but its cultivation detracts from the salubrity of their genial climate. They, however, possess means of protecting themselves from the pernicious influence of the rice-lands. Some people, by taking care not to go abroad till after sunrise, by returning in the evening to apartments well closed against the external air, and abstaining almost entirely from the use of water, have lived in the midst of their rice-fields without sustaining any inconvenience; but few persons who reside in their neighbourhood, escape the attacks of periodical fevers. Rice is sown at midsummer, and reaped at the end of September. The crops seldom fail, and the produce is sure to find a ready market. On this account, the cultivators would become too numerous, were it not for the severe laws enacted by Government, to restrict the extent of the rice-grounds. They abound along the coast, and especially to the south of the city of Valencia, from Gandia to Catarrojo. On this tract, the predilection for the culture of rice assumes the character of a mania which nothing can restrain. The Government divides the farms into several quarters, or *cotos*, and marks out those which alone, for a given time, may be sown with rice; but this restriction is in few instances attended to. In vain the captain-general repairs personally to the spot, to enforce these regulations; his authority is often compromised, and sometimes even his safety;

and the law is frequently evaded with impunity. The quantity of rice raised of late years is consequently prodigious. Valencia supplies all Spain, except the south of Andalusia, with rice, which is preferred to the produce of Carolina. The extensive demand for the rice of Valencia has tended considerably to raise its price, which, since 1785, is nearly doubled. There are, it is well known, two ways of cultivating this grain: it is either planted or sown. When planted, it is more productive, but requires more attention, for which reason the latter method is generally preferred. The land is prepared for its reception by ploughing; but the surface is made level without any appearance of furrows, and covered with water to the depth of more than a foot. The culture of rice, at least in the kingdom of Valencia, is attended with this singularity, that the plant is constantly in water, even including the time of reaping it. Rice-grounds are never drained, but for the purpose of weeding. In harvest-time, the reapers, wading up to the knees in water, are followed by low carts, which receive the sheaves of rice; this grain is then separated from the straw, in the same manner as all other kinds are, not only in Valencia, but almost throughout Spain: that is, it is trodden out by horses or mules. After this operation, the rice is still covered with the husk. This is removed by means of mills, perfectly resembling corn-mills, excepting that the stones are covered with cork. The rice is sold both before and after this latter operation.

"Barilla is a production peculiar to the kingdom of Valencia and Murcia. Of this essential article in the manufacture of glass, about 150,000 quintals are annually made and exported to France, England, Genoa, and Venice. Soda (in Spanish, *sosa*) is a species of

barilla, made use of in the soap-manufactories of France and England: of this, about 25,000 quintals a year are made in Valencia. Of *aqua-azul*, a third species of barilla, the quantity annually made amounts to 4,000 quintals, of which the greater part is exported to Marseilles. Lastly, *solicor*, a fourth species, is produced without cultivation, and is used in the glass-houses of France, England, and Italy. Oil is one of the most abundant productions of the kingdom of Valencia; but it is not allowed to be exported, except when the price is low. It is generally thought to have a disagreeable taste and smell. Valencia affords also a kind of clay, of which they make tiles of coloured delf-ware, called *azulejos*, which are manufactured only at Valencia. They are used to pave and cover the walls of apartments; and the most complicated subjects are painted upon them. Of *esparto*, one of the most common productions of the country, the inhabitants make mats and cordage. Considerable quantities are exported to Toulon and Marseilles, where it is much used in the dock-yards and arsenals. The industry of the Valencians even avails itself of a species of aloe, a parasitical plant, which seems to have been designed only for ornament and for enclosures. From its long and very thick leaves, they procure a kind of thread, with which they manufacture bridles and other articles. They likewise export part of the wool of the second quality which their territory produces, together with numerous cargoes of dried fruits, aniseed, and cochineal, the production of the country. Finally, their abundant crops of oranges, lemons, raisins, and figs, and above all, their wines and brandies, furnish them with articles for a prodigious exportation."*

*Bourgoing, vol. iii. pp. 243—51.

Till of late, Valencia had no other port than the bad road-stead opposite the village of Grao.* Small vessels could seldom approach nearer than within half a league, and three-mast ships were scarcely ever seen there. Their cargoes were unloaded into barges, which were rowed close to the shore, and then drawn by oxen upon the beach. Within the last twenty years, efforts have been made to form a harbour capable of admitting large frigates, by raising the water of the sea by artificial means, similar to those to which the French had recourse in constructing the port of Cherbourg. A duty was laid upon silks towards defraying the expenses of the undertaking; but the success has not, it seems, been answerable to the first expectations. "The tempests of winter destroy what has been done in summer; the winds are continually choking up the entrance with sand-banks; and it is to be feared, that all the money hitherto expended has been absolutely thrown away."

Notwithstanding all this appearance of abundance, industry, and wealth, nothing, we are told, can be more wretched than the state of the Valencian peasantry, who can with difficulty procure food sufficient for the subsistence of their families. All the gains are absorbed by the rich proprietors, lay and clerical, and the mercantile speculators. In this province, "industry is not cramped and oppressed, as in the provinces of the crown of Castile, by royal imposts." In the place of the *rentes provinciales*, is levied a moderate property-tax, called the *equivalente*. But the

* The coast of Valencia is the terror of mariners. It has not a single good harbour. "From the Alfaques at the mouth of the Ebro, to Cartagena, there are no roads but those of Alicant and Santa Pola, where the anchorage is at all safe, or which can afford shelter to vessels in cases of necessity."

Valencians are, on the other hand, subject to very heavy feudal services and seignorial imposts, levied in kind on the produce of the soil, amounting to a seventh, a sixth, and in some places, a *fourth* of the crop.

The general character of the Valencians is represented by all travellers as differing very decidedly from that of the Catalonians and Castilians, by whom they are held in sovereign contempt, and regarded with the rancour of a national antipathy. Mr. Swinburne seems to have left Valencia with altogether unfavourable impressions and something like ill-humour with both the country and the people. "We shall leave Valencia to-morrow," he says, "being heartily tired of our quarters. The climate is mild and pleasant, but there is something faintish and enervating in the air. Every thing we eat is insipid and void of substance. The greens, wine, and meat, seem the artificial forced productions of continual waterings and hot-beds. It puts one in mind of the *Isle Frivole* of the Abbé Coyer, where things were so feeble and unsubstantial, that they were little better than the shadows of what they are in other countries. Here a man may labour for an hour at a piece of mutton, and when he has tired his jaws, find he has been only chewing the idea of a dinner.* The meat, as soon as cut into, yields abundance of gravy, and may be said

* This representation seems borne out in some degree by the Spanish proverb respecting the Valencians:

La carne es yerba, la yerba agua;
Los hombres mugeres, las mugeres nada.

"Their meat is grass, their grass water; the men are women, and the women nothing." Murillo speaks of the Valencians as "light alike in body and mind;" and Gracian, another Spanish writer, says: "The agreeable, very gay, flourishing, and noble city of Valencia is replete with all that is unsubstantial—*llena de todo lo que no es substancia.*"

to bleed a second time to death; for nothing remains but a mere withered *caput mortuum*. The vegetables, with the finest outward show imaginable, taste of nothing but water. This washy quality seems also to infect the bodies and minds of the Valencians. They are largely built and personable men, but flabby and inanimate.

"We have seen no women out at work in the fields; but this may proceed from their constant employment within doors, as much as from any remnants of the Moorish jealousy, though the Valencians still retain much of the features and manners of their old Saracen masters. To this day, the farmers will not allow their wives to sit at table, but make them stand at their elbow, and wait upon them. The inhabitants of this province are said to have more of the filth and sullen, unpolished manners of the old Spaniards, and to have adopted less of foreign improvements in civilisation, than most other parts of Spain. They strut about all day in *redicillas*, or nets, monstrous hats, and dark brown cloaks, which give the crowd in the street the appearance of a funeral procession. Scarcely any society is kept up among them, though the salubrity of the climate, and reasons of economy, induce several very considerable families to make this city the place of their abode. In some strange way or other, they spend very large incomes, without doing themselves the least credit. Their chief expense lies in servants, mules, and equipages. Low amours often consume the best part of their fortunes; and they live in so pitiful a manner, that most of them send out to the wine-vault for a pint of wine to their meals."*

* With equal justice might a foreigner speak of the pitiful manner in which many reputable London families live, who send out to the public-house for a pot of porter to their meals.

"It is very true," says Laborde, who rather endeavours to rescue their character from indiscriminate obloquy, "that the Valencians have a great degree of levity, a fickleness of disposition, and a gayety in their manners; that they are swayed by the love of pleasure; that they are fond of singing, dancing,* banqueting, and all kinds of feasting; that these are perpetually running in their head, at work or at prayers, abroad or at home, in the streets or in company. The very festivals of the church become with them recreations. But, notwithstanding all this, they can be serious when circumstances require it; they are not the less active in commerce, the less industrious in the arts, the less assiduous in agriculture, or the less profound in the sciences. Valencia can adduce scholars, literary men, artists, and able merchants enough to overturn the imputation of frivolity, to which the imposition of appearances only could have given rise. On juster grounds are the nobility of Valencia charged with an excessive pride. They are,

* The Valencians are accounted the best dancers in Spain. Many of them travel into the different provinces, and some even into foreign countries, exhibiting their skill, and collecting money by their singular appearance. They have dances peculiarly their own; two in particular, in the form of a ballet. In the first, they dance among a parcel of eggs ranged along the ground, which, in their nimble and various movements, they seem every moment on the point of crushing. This is safer than the Highland dance of *killum callum*, performed with bare feet across two naked swords laid on the floor. In their other dance, they are armed with short sticks; each strikes that of the other, marking thus all the measures of the music, and rattling them more or less quickly against one another, with wonderful dexterity in all their movements, as they advance, wheel round, or retreat. They all strike at the same moment, and their blows fall in perfect time. We have a poor mimicry of this in England, called the *Morris*, or *Moorish* dance, for such is its origin; only the Moors used their cimeters instead of the cudgels.

by themselves, divided into three classes: blue blood, red blood, and yellow blood.* Blue blood is confined to families who have been made grandees, and to some other houses, deemed entitled to it. Red blood comprehends titles of great antiquity, and the old titles of Castile and Aragon. Yellow blood comprehends the modern titles of Castile, and families the date of whose nobility extends no further back than two centuries. This division is the source of envy in the second class against the first, and in the third against the two others; so that no attachment is formed except among the nobles of the same class.

"The tradesman of Valencia loves pleasure and good living; so would the lowest class of people, if they had the means of gratification. These appear gentle; but they are charged with concealing their hatred. They were formerly accused of making frequent use of the dagger, and it has been even said, that there were a great number of professed assassins for hire in Valencia. One shudders in passing through the streets, particularly those near the *Mercado* Square, at the sight of crosses on the walls, with inscriptions containing the names of persons assassinated near the spot. We must, however, do justice to the modern Valencians. They are more civilised. There are no assassins for hire among them; the dagger is no longer used; and murders are much less frequent, though they are still heard of now and then."†

"The Valencians are among the most superstitious

* This distinction is not peculiar to the Valencian nobility, but exists in other provinces.

† The diminution of the number of assassinations must partly be ascribed, however, to the establishment of the *serenos*, or night-watch, in 1777. They are so called, because, in proclaiming with the hour the state of the weather, they have generally to announce it to be *sereno*, or fine.

people in Spain. They mix religious works with profane customs, and think, by exterior observances which having nothing to do with the worship of the Deity, to obtain pardon for their sins. They have particularly great confidence in the saints, to whom they attribute the power of protecting from accidents and diseases. S. Roque protects against the plague, S. Antonio against fire, Sta. Barbara against lightning, Sta. Catalina cures the loss of blood, Sta. Apollonia the toothach, Sta. Augusta the dropsy, S. Raymundo has the care of married women, S. Lazaro presides over births, and S. Nicolas has the charge of marriageable girls. Every waggoner carries about him the image of a saint, to whom he expresses his gratitude if his journey be fortunate; but, should any mishap overtake him on the road, wo be to his protector! He tramples him under foot, loads him with abuse, and sends him, *al Demonio Santa Barbara! a los Diabolos San Francisco! al inferno Nuestra Señora del Carmen!** There are several other superstitions, but we shall only mention that called the *mal de ojos*, or evil eye. The Valencian women secure

* "When disappointed by his tutelary saints, an Italian or Sicilian will sometimes proceed so far as to heap reproaches, curses, and even blows on the wax, wood, or stone which represents them. The same turbulent gusts of passion displayed themselves in the same way among the Romans, who scrupled not to accuse their gods of injustice, and to express their indignation against their faithless protectors by the most unequivocal signs.

'Injustos rabidis pulsare querelis,
Cœlicolas solamen erat.' *Stat. Sylv.* v. 22.

'To him who smarts beneath the heavenly rod,
Some comfort is it, to reproach the god!'

"Upon the death of Germanicus, stones were cast by the populace at the temples in Rome, the altars were overturned, and in some instances, the lares were thrown into the streets. (Sueton.

themselves from it by little ivory hands, moles' feet, or scarlet tufts, and likewise tie them about their children's necks."*

Laborde describes the Valencian women as mild and amiable, though somewhat impetuous, frivolous, and very mutable. They are, he says, always in motion. They walk about the streets, go from shop to shop, without any purpose of buying, and frequent churches as a pastime. Their favourite rendezvous is the square of Santa Catalina, where they are fond of exhibiting themselves to their male admirers; so that, were any one to remain there the whole of a day, he would see in that time at leāst three-fourths of the women of Valencia pass and repass before him. Their numerous festivals, and the many occasions presented for devotional exercises, afford a perpetual excuse for these trips abroad.

The description given by the same Traveller of the expensive religious processions, is adapted to excite as much disgust at these popular profanations of religion, as pity, not to say contempt, for their frivolous admirers. In most other parts of Spain, these barbarous, Gothic, and revolting exhibitions have been either suppressed, or at any rate greatly modified; but here, by this giddy, childish, and effeminate race, they are kept up with all their ancient incongruities, and cherished as much as ever; and were an enlightened ecclesiastical dignitary to attempt putting them down, he would raise a riot, and be stigmatised by the mul-

Calig. 5.) And Augustus thought proper to take his revenge upon Neptune for the loss of one of his fleets, by not allowing his image to be carried in procession to the Circensian games which followed!"—BLUNT'S *Vestiges of Ancient Customs in Italy, &c.* p. 125. Many other of the superstitions of the Valencians may in like manner be referred to a heathen origin.

* Laborde, vol. i. pp. 228—231.

titude as an infidel. As a sample of these sacrilegious absurdities, which are no where exceeded in extravagance, and are only approximated by those in Sicily, the following details, given by the French Traveller, may not be uninteresting.

Every procession in Valencia is preceded by eight prodigious statues of giants, made of wicker-work, with pasteboard heads, dressed out in the newest fashion, and carried by men, who, concealed beneath the drapery, make them dance, twist about, and make bows to the deluded populace. Four of them are female figures, representing the four quarters of the globe; the other four are their husbands. Two benefices have actually been founded in their honour; and the ecclesiastics possessing them, must attend to their preservation, and furnish their toilets out of a particular fund assigned for that purpose.*

The procession on the Thursday in Passion week, is opened by these giant puppets, two trumpets announcing its advance with a monotonous and discordant sound. They are followed by twenty-three persons bearing as many little flags, on which are painted the instruments of our Saviour's Passion. A double row of men in their usual dress, bearing large white lighted tapers in their hands, make up the body of this procession. Between them are seen boys walking, dressed in long violet robes, girded with cords, having wigs on their heads and crowns of thorns, and bearing crosses on their shoulders. Here and there appear penitents clad in red, with flags of the same colour, some of them carrying stages, on which are represented with figures the several circum-

* In Flanders, before the French Revolution, the same ridiculous display of giants, called in the vernacular dialect of that country *Les Gayans*, was exhibited.

stances of the Passion. On one of these of a prodigious length, is exhibited the Lord's Supper. That of the *Ecce Homo* is preceded by two men in armour, with their pikes reversed. A third supports three bad statues, as large as life, one of which is that of the Virgin Mary, wearing a scapulary of the Trinitarian order!!! Some monks of this order follow, having a huge crucifix carried before them. A fourth stage, upholding the Holy Trinity, terminates the procession. In this groupe, the Eternal Father is seen dressed in an albe, stole, and cope, like a prelate about to perform Divine service!

There are no fewer than five processions on Good Friday, a description of which would be but a repetition of the same revolting absurdities. That of Corpus Christi deserves, however, more particular notice, as being preceded and accompanied by ceremonies both singular and original. On the eve of that festival, masks are seen running up and down the streets, accompanied with tambarines, trumpets, and Valencian hautboys, called *dulzaynas*, announcing the solemnity of the coming day. At the same time is acted in the streets the massacre of the Innocents. The flight also into Egypt is mimicked thus: a fellow dressed in woman's clothes, to represent the Virgin Mary, holding an infant in his arms, and mounted on an ass, is led through the streets by one dressed out as St. Joseph. They are escaping from Herod's murdering satellites, who soon after appear in a fanciful Jewish costume, armed with knives, sabres, and cutlasses, in pursuit of the fugitives. They stop and affect to menace all they meet, placing their weapons against the throats and bosoms of male and even female passengers. On the festival day, the procession is ushered in with six large carts, each drawn by as many

mules, and surmounted with a wooden stage, called *rocas*, the trappings of which conceal the body of the vehicle from view. On the first of these stages is represented the story of the creation,—Adam being made out of the earth, Eve springing from his side, the serpent tempting her, she seducing her husband, both eating the apple, the Creator passing sentence on them, and the angel, in fine, with the flaming sword, driving them out of paradise. All this is represented by living persons, dressed out in the oddest manner, each appearing only in his turn to act his part, the performers gravely reciting Italian verses expressive of their meaning in the characters they assume. The other stages that follow, are crowded with men and women fantastically dressed, who perform several dances, to the sound of various musical instruments, particularly the *dulzaynas*. Next appears, attended with music, a pedestrian dancing groupe, standard-bearers, children dressed as shepherds, sailors with their *tambours de basque*, men dressed in white, capering and keeping time with their castanets, Moorish kings bearing banners, men of less swarthy complexion pitching and balancing their staves, giants, giantesses, and their pages. Wherever the procession halts, four children in a dress like nothing ever witnessed elsewhere, foot it nimbly on a large table placed before the host, accompanying their steps with the harsh cracking cadence of the castanet.

The procession of St. Joseph, on the carpenter's day, the 18th of March, is not less exquisite in its kind; but that on the festival of the city's patron saint, *Vicente Ferrier*, the second Monday after Easter day, exceeds, if possible, all the rest in the expensive display of all that is most extravagant and absurd. There are no fewer than a hundred and

fifty such exhibitions in the course of one twelve-month, many of which are protracted to very late hours, affording opportunities for assignations, thefts, and immoral practices of every kind. The French invaders, in requital for all the evils they caused to Spain, rendered so far a service to the country, by turning into ridicule, and suppressing wherever they had the command, the religious mania of her monk-ridden populace. The Constitutionalists were also attempting gradually to abolish them; but the *absolute king* and the present hierocratic government find it to be for their interest to busy the public mind with fantastic shows and childish exhibitions, that may divert the attention of the populace from the crimes of their rulers and the national grievances.

Upon the whole, the Valencians would appear to be an airy, lively, active, but effeminate people, very different in manners from the Castilians; while their character forms, apparently, a still stronger contrast to the savage heroism of the Catalonians and Aragonese, their immediate neighbours. Their dialect, though much akin to the Catalonian, is said to differ from it in retaining more of the Provençal. Here, as in all other parts of Spain, notwithstanding their supposed affinity to the southern French, there prevails a rooted antipathy against that nation.

Valencia, in spite of its opulence and the affability of its inhabitants, is far from being an amusing town, — at least to a Frenchman. Here are no coffee-houses, and few dinner-parties are given among the higher orders; though, in second-rate society, agreeable parties are sometimes made up to go and dine at Grao and other adjacent places. The luxury which appears in their dress and equipages, does not extend to the interior of the houses. The

walls are bare, the floors matted, the chairs straw-bottomed, and their large lustres, which constitute the principal decoration of their rooms, are of white glass. Tapestry and carpets are very rare; and we see no elegantly decorated mantel-pieces, no girandoles, clocks, mirrors, or china ornaments. But, in fact, in this fine climate, the inhabitants find their chief pleasures out of doors, and are naturally less solicitous about the embellishment of their houses. Swinburne, though impatient to quit Valencia, praises its rich gardens and brilliant sky; adding, that it would be "an admirable last retreat for our consumptive countrymen, were the approach by sea or land less difficult." The environs, in the fine season, are truly delightful. M. Bourgoing dwells more especially on the enchanting beauty of the village of Benimamet, half a league from the city. "Here," he says, "and in a hundred other places in the kingdom of Valencia, we are convinced of the truth of the observation of a native of Sweden, Count de Creutz," (minister from that country to the court of Madrid in 1764,) "when he said: 'In that highly favoured region, we forget every thing, even our native country, business, and all. A person is no longer a husband, a father, or a friend: he is a being cut off from the rest of his fellow-creatures, feasting on the beauties of nature, and drinking deeply of the happiness of existence.'" This is said to be, indeed, too much the case with the natives, who are charged with a heartless voluptuousness. There is, however, no doubt, a little poetical exaggeration in the Swede's description both of the felicities and the dangers of the climate.

There is a fine view of the surrounding country from the top of a tower contiguous to the cathedral, called the *Miquelet*. The city seems to stand in the

midst of a prodigious orchard, over which are scattered numberless villages and hamlets. To the east, the plain is open to the sea; but, in every other direction, is bounded by distant mountains. The Guadalaviar is seen slowly rolling the scanty remnant of its waters into the Mediterranean; and at some miles distance from the city is the lake of Albufera, about four leagues in length and two in breadth, but very shallow, which also discharges itself into the sea by means of a narrow channel closed with sluices. It supplies the Valencians with fish and water-fowl; and on its edge are salt-pans. Once or twice in the season (November), all the sportsmen, having purchased permission of the person who rents the lake of the crown, assemble upon it in boats, and make prodigious havoc among the flocks of birds who almost cover the surface. Flamingoes are sometimes met with.

FROM VALENCIA TO THE MURCIAN FRONTIER.

In pursuing Mr. Swinburne's route southward to the kingdom of Murcia, we take the road to Alicant, which for the first thirteen leagues is the same as the Madrid road. The first large town is Alcira (corrupted from Algesira), built on an island formed by the Xucar, a deep, muddy river, which fertilizes the plain by means of numerous canals. The population is stated at 10,000. Soon after crossing this river, the traveller enters on the rice-grounds, which extend to the entrance of a more mountainous country. At three leagues and a half from Alcira, is Xativa (*Setabis*), an ancient Roman station. Here stood a strong fortress, which was destroyed, together with the town, by Philip V., who ordered it to be rebuilt under the name of San Felipe. The monster, Rodrigo Borgia (Pope Alexander VI.), was a native of this

place. "Our route from San Felipe," continues Mr. Swinburne, "lay up long, winding vales, between ridges of high, bleak mountains. On the right hand stands the castle of Montesa, head of the military order of Montesa, instituted in 1317 by Jayme II. King of Aragon, after he had driven the Moors as far back as the territories of Granada. All the possessions of the knights templars in the province were bestowed upon the new order, into which none but Valencians were to be admitted. They wear a plain red cross. The commanderies belonging to the foundation were thirteen in number, whose yearly income, according to the king's books, where they are rated very low, amounts to 444,112 *reals de vellon*. In 1742, an earthquake overthrew the castle and all the adjacent buildings, burying under the ruins the greater part of the monks and other inhabitants. Those who escaped were removed to Valencia.* We did nothing the whole day but ascend through olive-plantations, pine-forests, and bare chalky hills, up the course of a little brook, till we came to its source; it breaks out in the middle of a town on the confines of Castile. Hitherto, the olives I have seen, are all of the smaller sort. The castle of Villena† is large, well situated,

* A great part of the castle, Laborde says, is still standing, of a long, rectangular form, the walls flanked with towers.

† "Just as we were going into Villena," says Swinburne, "a little, round, squat figure met my eye, dressed in a brown *montero* cap, jacket, and breeches, with a yellow waistcoat. It is not possible to paint a better Sancho Pança, and we were actually in a corner of the country of that squire; which makes me conclude that Cervantes drew the picture from real life, in some of his journeys through La Mancha. All the inhabitants of the town wear the same dress, which is neat enough." Villena, though the country on both sides is comprised in Valencia, belongs to the kingdom of Murcia, (M. Peyron says, to New Castile,) and is the chief place of a marquisate. It bore, under the Romans, the name

and has been strong. I never saw a country so full of ruined towers, as the skirts of Valencia and Castile. Not a village is without its fortress perched upon some almost inaccessible cliff; none more singular than that of *Sax*. The hills here are broken, the landscape bleak; but, about *Elda*, the plain is improved to the best advantage. We passed by a string of ponds and caves, where the inhabitants of that town keep their provision of ice.* As there was a thin coat of ice on the surface of the water, they were very busy carrying it off with the greatest expedition, lest a sudden thaw should deprive them of it.

"Before we came into the plain of Montfort, we had a vile piece of road through a broken range of marly hills. We now found the style of salutation quite altered. Hitherto, the peasants were wont to accost us, as they passed, with *Dios guarde v. m!*—'God keep your worship!' But here, they begin, twenty yards before they come up to you, to bawl out as loud as they can, *Ave Maria purissima*—'Hail, Mary, most pure!' to which you are expected to answer, *Sin pecado concebida!*—'Conceived without sin;' or, *Deo-gracias!*—'Thanks be to God!'†

"Our road the next morning was bad, the country abominable—a white clay in powder, and not a stick of wood. In rainy years, the crops of corn are very

of Arbacula. It stands in a rich plain, and was formerly surrounded with walls, which are now in ruins. Not far from this place is Biar (Apiarium), still famous for its excellent white honey. At four leagues from Villena, there is said to be a detached hill, composed of rock-salt.

* Elda, a small town on the left bank of the little river of that name, is said to have been built by the Moors, who called it *Idella*, "that is to say, the House of Pleasure."

† These were the watch-words by which the Christians distinguished each other from the Moors and Jews.

plentiful. We got in to Alicant very early, and took up our lodgings at an inn which overhangs the sea."

ALICANT.

This place, the principal entrepôt of the commerce of Valencia, Murcia, Aragon, and part of New Castile, ranks next to Cadiz and Barcelona as a commercial town. The population is rated at upwards of 17,000 inhabitants. Its bay is large and secure, but not deep. About a thousand vessels of different nations enter it yearly, about half of which are Catalans. The exports, estimated at less than 2,000,000*l.* sterling, consist of brandies, wines, oil, fruit, aniseed, cinnamon, cochineal, saffron, barilla, salt, lead-ore, wool, and silk. The imports are linens, cloths, corn, iron-ware, and Newfoundland cod. Mr. Swinburne gives the following description of the place:—

"Alicant stands on the middle of a narrow neck of land, that runs out into the sea a considerable way, and almost comes round in a semicircular form, in the centre of which ships ride with as much safety as in a harbour. A rocky mountain rises directly behind the town. On its summit is the castle, now fortified after the modern method, and extended far beyond the limits of the old fortress, great part of which was blown up, with a fragment of the rock, in the war with the allies, in the reign of our Queen Anne. The English who then garrisoned it, refused to capitulate, though the French gave them notice of the mine being ready to be sprung. A well that communicated with the mine, gave it some vent, and prevented the rest of the mountain from being shivered to pieces by the explosion. However, most of the officers were blown up; and the remainder of the troops were so stunned by the shock, as to remain for many hours

deprived of all power of motion.* Behind the castle-hill, is a plain, some leagues in circumference, called *Las Huertas*, or the Gardens, lying along the sea-shore, surrounded on three sides by very lofty mountains. It is a very beautiful vale, thickly studded with villages, villas, farms, and plantations of all kinds of fruit-trees; but in the hot season, the air is very unwholesome, and few or none escape agues or fevers. Here the fine Alicant and Tent wines are made.

"The town has neither buildings nor streets to recommend it to notice; though the houses in general are solidly built, with flat roofs covered with cement. Their walls are plastered, and every thing is as white as the soil of the adjacent country, which fatigues the eye in sun-shiny weather, that is, almost every day in the year; then the dust flies about in whirlwinds. If it rains, the streets are almost impassable, the *Calle mayor* being the only one that is paved. In the hot months, this place is a very furnace; its form being the best calculated in the world for intercepting the rays of the sun, and collecting them in one focus. The moun-

* This took place in 1707. Mr. Townsend gives a version of the story less creditable to the unfortunate general, who, with twenty of his officers, perished by the explosion. "When the Spaniards had nearly finished the work, they gave warning to the garrison; and when they had lodged in it 1,300 barrels of powder, they generously permitted the English general to send his engineers, who viewed the mine with its contents. These reported, that the burthen was too great for the quantity of powder, and that the garrison was safe. On the day appointed for the springing of the mine, people from every part assembled on the opposite hill, to view the catastrophe; and notice of the fatal moment was given to the garrison. Precisely at that moment, the officers, engaged in drinking, and somewhat elated by their wine, declared their resolution not to quit the battery till they had drunk two bottles more, for which they had sent a servant; but no sooner had he turned his back, than the battery, together with General Richards and twenty gallant officers, mounted in the air."

tain behind shuts out the winds that, blowing from the cool quarters, might refresh the atmosphere; though the sea breeze might occasionally contribute to the cooling of the air.

"Water is the great agent, the *primum mobile* of all productions in this country. Every thing languishes and is soon parched up without an ample supply of it. Abundance of rain secures a plentiful harvest and a copious vintage. Wherever a spring breaks out, the king's people seize upon it, and allot to each landholder a proper hour for letting the water upon his grounds. It is of so much consequence, that the value of a guinea has been paid for an hour extraordinary."*

Singularly different is Mr. Townsend's account of this place; but when he visited it, in 1787, the indefatigable zeal of an enlightened governor had produced great improvements. The streets had been fresh paved; and "few towns," says this Traveller, "can boast of superior neatness. From being in every sense a nest of vermin, it is become a delightful residence." It had used to swarm all day with beggars, and all night with thieves, the natural result of unbridled and patronised mendicity. Don Francisco

* The *Huerta* is watered from a vast reservoir, called *El Pantano*, formed between two high mountains, five leagues from Alicant, by means of two immensely thick walls, 147 feet high. It is, in fact, an artificial lake, above 130 feet in breadth, and 236 in length. A royal edict, in 1739, established sixty-two regulations for the distribution of the water; so that all the landholders may have their fair proportion at a moderate price. The money raised is professedly to keep this reservoir in repair. It brings in a revenue to Government of 2,000*l.* a-year. The farmers, Mr. Townsend says, could dispose of five times as much water as they receive at present; and were the whole interval between the mountains occupied with reservoirs, they might all be filled. This *pantano* has been replenished by four hours' rain.

Pacheco, the governor, saw the evil in its true light, and though he knew that prejudice would run strong against him, he succeeded in establishing a work-house under the title of the House of Mercy, which he placed under the superintendence of a society, with the bishop, canons, and chief nobility at its head, denominated the Brethren of the Poor. Here the lazy were compelled to work, and the increase of beggars was effectually checked. There is also a military orphan-asylum here.

"Alicant stood formerly about a league further eastward, on the other side of Mount San Julian, not far from Cape *de la Huerta;* and the modern city, so late as the year 1519, consisted merely of six cottages; but in three and forty years subsequent to that period, 1,000 families had taken refuge in it from the ravages of the Algerines. All the ancient houses in the Huerta, by their lofty and strong towers, evidently shew how much were dreaded the depredations of those pirates; and the vast increase of Alicant proves the peace and security which its citizens have enjoyed under the protection of its castle. Even so late as the year 1776, the Algerines invaded, like a cloud of locusts, all the sea-coast of Catalonia, Valencia, and Granada, but they were soon repulsed. In these incursions, it was not so much for plunder, as for prisoners, that they came; because they knew for a certainty, that their captives would be redeemed by the Fathers of Mercy, an order of monks instituted for that purpose. They had too much wisdom to set a value on the labour of a slave: it was the hope of the ransom only that allured them. What a pity to see the compassion of these fathers productive of the evils which they were anxious to prevent!" *

* Townsend, vol. iii. p. 219.

The rock on which the castle stands, is calcareous, and abounds with fragments of fossil shells; but the sierra to the north is apparently composed of schist. About two leagues from Alicant, is a calcareous mountain, called Alcoray, in which are found cinnabar* and red gypsum. The country in the vicinity of Alicant, is wild and broken; the mountains are lofty, rugged, and bare, but the valleys, though small, are remarkably fertile. The soil is sandy, with beds of clay and marl. The rock is, in general, calcareous. In the *Huerta*, it is a fine limestone resting on schist. At the distance of four leagues from Alicant, is the village of Las Aguas, where are the warm baths of Buzot. The road leads over the *Huerta*, and then ascends suddenly twelve or fourteen feet to a plain upon a higher level called the Campillo, which is also watered by the Pantano. After traversing this fertile plain, it begins to climb the hills of an elevated range, which derives its appellation, *Sierra Gitana*, from the gipsies. Near the base of these lofty mountains, on the southern declivity, four copious mineral springs burst forth. Their temperature is about 104° Fahr. They have a chalybeate taste, deposite a sediment of yellow ochre, and, on evaporation, yield both the sulphate and

* Veins of red lead are said to be found in the mountains of Alcoray, and also in the mountains between Valencia and San Felipe. At the foot of a mountain near the latter place, is also a mine of mercury, which, after having been abandoned, was reopened in 1793, but has again been given up. It is said to have yielded from a quintal of ore, 13 lb. of mercury, 21 of copper, 18 of sulphur and arsenic, and a 128th part of silver. Another vein of mercury is found in a clayey soil, two feet in depth, which crosses the city of Valencia from E. to W. Cobalt is found near Ayodar; alum near Castel Favi; ochre between Villena and Biar, and a beautiful white alabaster; amber in small quantities in the mountain Alcoray; and quarries of the finest marble in many parts of this province

the muriate of soda. Iron ore is found in the sierra. This part of the country is frequently shaken by strong earthquakes. Another thermal spring is found at *Fuente Caliente*, at the eastern foot of a limestone mountain, two leagues east of Alicant.

Alicant lies a little out of the direct road, which, leaving it on the left, runs on to Elche, situated in a plain, and surrounded with forests of palm-trees. This place, the ancient Illici, gave its name to the *Sinus Illicitanus*, and had the title and rights of a Roman colony. It now contains about 15,000 inhabitants. Dates are the chief article of its trade. It contains three churches, two monasteries, and a nunnery, but nothing deserving of notice. It is a gloomy place, and the inhabitants, though reputed to be rich, "live wretchedly." The adjacent country, however, is very cheerful. Swinburne says: "The dates hanging on all sides in clusters of an orange colour, and the men swinging on bass ropes to gather them, formed a very curious and agreeable scene. The palms are old and lofty: their number is said to exceed 200,000. Many of the trees have their branches bound up to a point, and covered with mats to prevent the sun and wind from getting to them. In process of time, the branches become quite white, and are then cut off and sent by ship-loads from Alicant to Genoa and other parts of Italy, for the grand processions of Palm Sunday; an uncommon species of traffic, which is also carried on with Madrid, where every house has its blessed palm-branch."

Orihuela, the next place of any consequence (the *Auriola* of the Romans), is an episcopal city, tolerably well built, at the foot of a ridge of bare rocks, near the head of a very fruitful *vega*, or vale, on both

sides of the river Segura. The streets are broad, but not paved. There are no fountains: the inhabitants drink of the waters of the river. The population is rated at 20,000 souls. This place is dignified with a university, founded in 1556, for the four learned professions. There are also thirteen convents, one seminary, and two colleges, in one of which there are about 300 students. But, upon the whole, the system of education followed here, is, as in most Spanish schools, very indifferent and circumscribed. There is nothing in the public edifices to excite curiosity. The cathedral is small and gloomy. The parish church of San Juan has a tolerably fine portal in the Gothic style. That of Our Lady of Montserrat has two stories of architecture of the Corinthian order, each of four columns of green marble. The front of the Dominican convent is immensely wide, but without ornament. The church of the Augustins has its front ornamented with two fine square towers, having three stories of architecture. The inhabitants are distinguished by their suavity of manners and their laborious industry in cultivating their lands. The surrounding country is beautiful. It is a continuation of the *huerta* (garden) of Murcia, but is better cultivated. It forms, indeed, one succession of orchards, in which the orange and the lemon are intermixed with the almond, the pomegranate, and the mulberry.* The lands, by means of incessant irrigation, are constantly productive: hence the Spanish proverb, *Si llueva o no llueva, trigo en Orihuela:* rain or no rain, there is wheat in Orihuela. A prodigious number of

* Mr. Swinburne mentions avenues of the Peru pepper-tree, or *Schinus molle*, which he saw near this town, loaded with bunches of a handsome rose-coloured fruit.

silk-worms are raised here, which are to the inhabitants a considerable source of wealth. An hour beyond Orihuela, the traveller reaches the frontier of Murcia.

Before we quit the kingdom of Valencia, we shall give from Laborde, a brief sketch of a route from the capital to Segorbe, distant about twenty leagues to the N.W., on the road to Saragossa.

FROM VALENCIA TO SEGORBE.

LEAVING Valencia by the suburb of Murviedro, at the end of a league, the traveller reaches the decayed town of Moncada, at the extremity of the Valencian vale. The land here begins to be parched, and gradually rises. After ascending for a league, the road enters a wood of pines, intermixed with fields and olive-plantations, which leads to *Porta Cœli*, a Carthusian monastery, seated on an eminence, commanding a vast prospect over the sea and the intermediate beautiful land scenery. At half a league westward, near the farm (belonging to this convent) of La Torre, the land becomes level. At two leagues from the convent we reach Liria, a very ancient town, situated between two hills, containing about 7,000 inhabitants, and enjoying the title of a dutchy. It bore the names of *Edera*, *Edeta*, and *Laurona*, under the Carthaginians and Romans, and was the capital of the *Edetani*. Some Roman monuments are said to be still in existence here. The road for the next two leagues, crosses a fertile plain, planted with vines, olives, and carob-trees: it then climbs a long and steep ascent, called *Las Lacobas*, to an elevated plain, at the extremity of which, four leagues from Liria, is the village of *Las Alcublas*, with about 1,400 inhabitants. Proceeding now between lofty mountains, covered with shrubs,

medicinal plants, and patches of vines, the traveller arrives at the entrance of a very deep valley, where stands the little town of Andilla. From this place, it is a steep ascent to the village of Canales. The road now winds along the side of the *Sierra Vellida*, and continues alternately to ascend and descend, often on the brink of precipices, till, after crossing the little river Canales, the traveller reaches Bexis, an ancient town, formerly fortified, but now inconsiderable, with only 1,000 inhabitants. Two leagues further is the little town of Vivel, with 1,300 inhabitants, agreeably situated near the river Palencia. It is thought to be the ancient *Belsinum*, afterwards the *Vivarium* of the Romans. There are still found here Roman inscriptions. Half a league more of good road through a fertile and well-wooded country, brings us to *Xerica*, (the ancient *Ociserda* or *Etobesa*; according to others, the *Laxeta* of the Romans,) situated near the river Palencia, on the side of a mountain, at the top of which are seen the ruins of a strong castle. Its population amounts to 2,300. Here are also Roman inscriptions, chiefly sepulchral. An undulating country succeeds. The road crosses the Palencia by a bridge, and a league and a half beyond it is *La Esperanza*, a monastery of *Geronimites*, situated on a hill, at the foot of which a spring throws out water sufficient to turn two mills, and to water the districts of Navajas, Segorbe, and Altura. Its waters are said to have a petrifying quality. Another quarter of a league brings the traveller to Segorbe.

This town, which has the title of a dutchy, is well situated in a fertile vale, on the river of the same name, which, lower down, takes the name of Murviedro. It is supposed to be the Roman *Segobriga*. It is the see of a bishop, suffragan to Valencia, and

including in its diocese forty-two parishes. The city contains four monasteries, a nunnery, five hermitages, and an hospital, with about 6,000 inhabitants. There are some good paintings in the cathedral, and in the church of the nunnery. At the distance of a quarter of a league from the town, is the Carthusian monastery of *Val de Cristo*, where also there are some good paintings. Near this monastery, a mine of good copper has been opened in a stratum of slate. At Altura, a neighbouring village belonging to the monastery, the fathers have established a paper-mill. Segorbe is the last town in Valencia in this direction.

MURCIA.

THE kingdom of Murcia, on which we now enter, is the smallest province in Spain, being only twenty-five leagues in length, and about twenty-three in breadth. According to Laborde, it contains a surface of 1,100 square leagues, and less than 400,000 inhabitants. It lies between the province of Valencia on the East; La Mancha and New Castile on the North and West; Jaen and Granada on the South-west and South; and extends to the Mediterranean on the South-east. The only two rivers of any importance by which it is watered, are the Segura (the ancient Terebus) and the Guadalentin. To the former, the *Huerta* (garden) of Murcia owes its fertility; the latter takes its rise in the kingdom of Granada, and traversing that of Murcia from West to East, washes the walls of Lorca, and falls into the Mediterranean near Almazaron. Murcia, the capital, Carthagena, and Lorca, are the only places of note.

The road from Orihuela to the city of Murcia, a distance of four leagues, lies along the foot of some

bare, rocky mountains,* over land but partially cultivated, till the traveller enters upon the rich valley of the Segura. This celebrated vale is described by Swinburne as far superior, in the variety and richness of its culture, to any plain he had hitherto travelled through. Although it was in the middle of December, the general appearance given to the land by the young corn, the flax, the lucerne, the pulse, and the orange-groves, was a bright green. Its surprising fertility is derived from the numberless trenches or canals which distribute the muddy waters of the Segura. The elm, the poplar, the willow, the cypress, the orange-tree, the lemon-tree, the fig-tree, the pomegranate, the medlar, the quince, the palm, and, above all, the mulberry-tree, flourish luxuriantly here, and fully entitle the whole vale to the name of the *Huerta*.† The soil of Murcia is particularly adapted to the mulberry-tree, which is said to have been introduced by the Moors,‡ to whom also the Spaniards of Valencia, Murcia, and Andalusia are indebted for the construction of their canals (*azequias*) and reservoirs (*norias*), as well as for the introduction of the culture of rice, sugar, and cotton.

The city of Murcia is described by Swinburne as neither large nor handsome. The muddy stream of the Segura, which divides it into two unequal parts,

* Laborde says, that there is another road, which follows the course of the Segura, but is impassable in autumn and winter. M. Peyron describes the country from Orihuela to the environs of Murcia as having the appearance of "a vast desert." The *Sierra de Orihuela* separates the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

† *Huerta* (hortus) is the name given to any watered plain: the dry plains are called *campos*, many of which are of excellent soil, but, for want of irrigation, are burned up by the intense heat.

‡ According to M. Peyron, the little kingdom of Murcia contained 355,500 mulberry-trees, which produced annually 250,000 lbs. of silk.

adds nothing to the embellishment of the town; and he found the streets so full of black, stagnant water, as to be almost impassable. The city is ill built; the streets are narrow, winding, and unpaved; and the only public edifice worth notice is the cathedral. It was formerly a walled town, entered by thirteen gates, of which four still remain, but it is now open on all sides. It contained, in 1787, in eleven parishes, 15,000 families, ten monasteries, and nine nunneries. There is a botanic garden here, and two public libraries. The principal employment of the inhabitants is the manufacture of silks, besides which there is some trade in carpets, made of *esparto*, which are sent chiefly to Madrid.

Mr. Townsend arrived at Murcia from Carthagena, on which side the city is approached by a spacious and handsome avenue. "As soon as I arrived," he says, "I hastened to see the cathedral, whose lofty tower had from a distance attracted my attention. The front is elegant, with sixteen marble columns of the Corinthian order, and thirty-two images as large as life. One of the most striking features about this edifice is, a chapel of the Marquis de los Veles, a hexagon, covered with a dome, in the Gothic taste, which is both light and elegant. Round this chapel is a stone chain curiously wrought. I was much disappointed, when I entered the cathedral, to find the interior so little correspondent to the expectations excited by the beauty of its front. Indeed, there is nothing in it remarkable besides the pictures and jewels. Of two silver altars, one is plain; the other, for high festivals, is more ornamented. One *custodia* of silver, for the elevation of the *host*, weighs nearly six hundred weight. Another contains eight pounds

and four ounces of the purest gold, with 600 emeralds, and many valuable diamonds. One vessel, somewhat similar, only used for preserving the consecrated wafers, and called *el copon* (more commonly the *pyxis*), has five pounds of gold, besides many brilliants of considerable value. On the right hand of the altar is a massive urn of silver, four feet long, two and a half wide, and four feet high, containing the ashes of the two bishops, Fulgentius and Florentinus. Over this, a little chest of gold and silver, highly wrought, contains one hair taken from the beard of Christ, and sent from Rome by Cardinal Velluga, who was bishop of this diocese!*

"It would be endless to enumerate all the jewels belonging to this church, forming a mass of treasure which, if in circulation, would animate the general industry. The sacristy allotted for the reception of this wealth, is in the centre of a vast square tower, constructed like that of Seville, but at present not quite so high. When finished, it will be more lofty by ten feet than that famous edifice. As you ascend, not by steps, but by inclined planes,† you go round the sanctuary, a spacious apartment, destined as a place of refuge for assassins, where they may be equally se-

* The treasures of gold, silver, and precious stones accumulated in the churches of Spain, were beyond all conception immense, and formed one of Bonaparte's great inducements for invading the Peninsula. It is known that he had previously sent out emissaries, professing to be scientific travellers, with instructions to take notes of all church valuables in the kingdom. Copies of their reports were given by the imperial plunderer to his worthy marshals, who were thus enabled to point out to the dismayed guardians of all this wealth, the very places in which it had been deposited.

† The ascent to the summit of the tower is so easy, Bourgoing says, that you may ride up it on horseback.

cure from the sword of justice and the dagger of revenge.*

" From the top of this tower you have a delightful prospect, commanding all the valley, with the circumjacent mountains. From hence you look down upon the city, every where surrounding the cathedral, and itself placed in the centre of the vale, the dimensions of which, extending east and west, are nearly six leagues, and two leagues from north to south. It is bounded on the south by the chain of mountains separating it from the vale of Carthagena; to the east, it communicates, by a small opening of about a league, with the vale of Orihuela and the sea; to the north-west are hills, and, beyond these, high mountains, bounding the distant view. The cathedral is built with freestone, distinguished by the name of *pisolite*, because it appears to be composed of shells in small fragments, with *globulæ* resembling the spawn of fish. It contains likewise many bivalves and *anomiæ* entire.

" I was exceedingly struck with the bridge over the Segura, magnificent in itself, and delightful for the prospect it commands of the river, the city, the vale, and the distant mountains, all in the most pleasant points of view. This river being often overflowed during the rainy season, the city would have been long since swept away, had it not been for a strong dike, twenty feet wide, and as many high, by which it is protected. This dike, projected merely for the safety of the city, being extended many miles up into the country, affords a pleasant walk to the inhabitants.

" No one who has lived always in a temperate

* These asylums, instituted in pretended imitation of the cities of refuge which were provided by the Jewish law for homicides, have been latterly abolished. Mr. Townsend saw two murderers who had fled from justice to this " voluntary prison."

climate, can conceive how much a traveller suffers from the flies, when he passes the summer in the southern provinces of Spain. But, of all the cities through which I passed, not one appears to be molested with such swarms of these teasing insects as Murcia. To disperse them in some houses, they have a large fan suspended over the dining-table, and kept constantly in motion. In others, one of the domestics is unremittingly engaged in waving the bough of a tree all the time the company are eating; but the great have a servant at their elbow, whose sole employment is with a napkin to keep off the flies." *

This city, though the capital of the province, does not contain a single inn. The only lodging to be had in it, is in a wretched and filthy *venta*, such as are found on most of the great roads of Spain, and which are generally kept by *gitanos* (gipsies). This ubiquitous race are found in great numbers in the southern provinces of Spain. All the butchers and tinkers, as well as most of the low inn-keepers, are of this tribe, and many of them are very rich.

The early history of this city is involved in much uncertainty. The Spanish writers pretend that it is of high antiquity, stating its ancient name to have been Murgis, and its inhabitants the Morgetes; besides which, it is said to have borne at different periods the appellations of Tadmir, Bigastro, Oreola, and Ormela. M. Peyron tells us, that this place was consecrated by the Romans to their *Venus Myrtia*. It appears to have been, however, a place of little consideration under its ancient masters, compared with Carthagena. At the beginning of the eighth century,

* The best security against these insects, which seek the light, is darkening the room: they then cluster about the windows, where quarts of them may be raked together at a time.

it had risen into some importance: in 714, it was besieged and taken by the Moors;* and, in 756, was attached to the dominions of the khalifs of Cordova. In 1144, it became a dependency of the new Moorish kingdom of Granada, but subsequently returned to the sovereigns of Cordova. At length, in 1236, on the dismemberment of that khalifate, it became the capital of a separate kingdom. In 1265, Alfonso X. of Castile, having made himself master of this place, fortified it, and peopled it with Catalonians, Aragonese, and French. Almost all the Murcian nobility, Laborde says, are of French origin, being descended from the military adventurers who, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, left their country to try their fortunes under the banners of foreign princes. Most of these accompanied Jayme II. Since that time, Murcia has, with only an interval of two years,† belonged to the crown of Castile, and its laws and administration are the same as in the other Castilianl provinces. The city is included in the military government of Valencia. Its bishop is a suffragan of the archbishop of Toledo. The see was originally established at Carthagena, but was transferred to Murcia in 1291. In the Succession war, this city declared for Philip V.;

* When Abdelazis, the Moorish general, laid siege to Murcia, it is said to have been so feebly garrisoned, that there were not men enough in the place to defend it. The governor was defeated in a *sortie;* but, with admirable presence of mind, he ordered the women to be clad in armour, and drawn up on the ramparts, by which *ruse de guerre* he obtained very honourable terms of capitulation. On entering the town, the Moors were astonished to find only an army of women. The same story is related of the taking of Orihuela. The plain of *Sangonera* is said to take its name from the bloody conflict between the Moors and the Murcians.

† From 1302 to 1304, it was in the possession of Jayme II., King of Aragon, but was ceded by him to Ferdinand IV., in exchange for Alicant and the adjacent country.

and Luis de Belluga, its prelate, is said to have acted the part of a military hero. The place was threatened by the advancing army of the archduke, when the bishop put himself at the head of the armed population, and prepared to dispute the possession. The city was open and defenceless; but the bishop opened the reservoirs, cut the canals, and, by turning the river Segura, laid the surrounding country under water. The troops of the archduke were unable to advance. The prelate immediately marched at the head of his little army to Orihuela, and gained possession of that city: he then laid siege to Carthagena, which he compelled to surrender on the fifth day. For these services he was afterwards created a cardinal.* To this learned and intrepid prelate is attributed the sarcastic remark respecting the city of Murcia, which has become proverbial: *El cielo y el suelo buenos, el entre-suelo malo* — the sky and the soil are good: all between them is bad.†

The character of the Murcians is the very opposite of that of the gay and volatile Valencians, to whom is also assigned a French origin. The worst traits in the Spanish character are here exhibited in the ridiculous family pride, the gloomy bigotry, and the debasing indolence which prevail among the citizens. The Murcian scarcely ever goes out of his native town; he is not to be seen either at courts or in camps, at universities or in commercial towns: he lives a life of apathy and sloth. The consequence is, that the annals of Spain scarcely present the names of any Murcians who have distinguished themselves either

* Laborde, vol. ii. p. 175.

† The pun is untranslatable. *Cielo* means roof, ceiling, as well as climate; *suelo*, soil, or the ground-floor; and the *entre-suelo* is a small room between the ground-floor and the principal apartment.

in arts or in arms. Among the very few exceptions, may be mentioned the illustrious Count Florida Blanca, whose measures were uniformly directed to the improvement of his country. The genealogical mania is here at its height. The nobles vie with each other in tracing their imaginary pedigrees to the ancient counts of Thoulouse and Barcelona, the twelve peers of Charlemagne, the Moorish khalifs, the Visigothic kings, the Roman emperors, and the Athenians! Family feuds and prejudices, a litigious spirit and unsocial manners, are the natural result of this absurd pride of birth, which appears to obtain the ascendancy in an inverse ratio to the prevalence of every personal merit. The enlightened state of the public mind may be estimated by two circumstances. Mr. Swinburne mentions, that in the cathedral, the names and banners of the Jews who have been burned in this town by the Inquisition, are stuck up like so many trophies won in the field of victory. The French Traveller states, that some years ago, an attempt was made to light the streets of Murcia; but the novelty displeased the people so highly, that the lamps were all broken to pieces the very first night they were lighted: a night-watch, however, has been established here, as at Valencia.

The complexion of the Murcian is sallow, often livid: he is gloomy, choleric, hypochondriacal. Hepatic diseases are prevalent here, which are attributed to the want of exercise, bad food, of which *pimiento* always forms a principal ingredient, the excessive use of iced water, which is carried, even among the common people, to the pitch of a mania,* and excess of sleep. The inhabitants go to bed early, rise

* In 1791, an insurrection was occasioned by a failure in the supply of ice.—LABORDE.

late, and their *siesta* is two hours long. The Sangrado system is here, as in other parts of Spain and Portugal, the sovereign remedy for all bodily ailments, but no where is it put in practice to the same absurd extent. Bleeding is prescribed for the slightest inconvenience, and nothing is more common than to meet persons in the streets with one hand tied round with a bandage of black taffeta, — the only part of the body to which the Murcian chirurgeons venture to apply the lancet. In spring, recourse is had to it as a preventive of disease.

The best explanation of this degraded character, which seems almost universally to attach to the Murcians, is supplied by the total want of education with which they are generally reproached throughout Spain. There are some excellent schools at Carthagena, but these are not open to the public; and, with this exception, there are throughout the province only a few bad schools kept by the monks. The two public libraries at Murcia are useless alike from the badness of the selection, and the invincible dislike of the inhabitants to reading.

The little intercourse which they have with foreigners, or even with the neighbouring provinces, may be considered as another cause of their being so far behind the rest of their countrymen in civilisation. In this respect, they are strikingly unlike the Valencians, Catalonians, and Galicians, who are met with all over the peninsula. The apathy of the Murcians, says Laborde, must appear inconceivable to those who are acquainted with the happy situation of their country, its fine climate, a soil capable of affording immense wealth with little labour, and with the best port in Spain. Yet, such is their unconquerable indolence, that most of their time is spent in eating, sleeping, and smoking cigars. They make regularly five meals

a day; viz. a breakfast of chocolate, a *pimiento* dish as a nunchion, dinner, a *merienda* of chocolate, and supper. They are not very nice, however, in their food, living chiefly on the most common vegetables, seasoned with *pimiento*, garlic, oil, and vinegar. Such a mess, with a morsel of bread, and a small glass of wine, costs about five farthings. There is a general prejudice in Murcia against beef: nobody eats it, and a person who should have it brought to table would be looked upon as a Jew. There is no luxury in Murcia, either in dress or furniture. The women dress as in other parts of Spain; but, instead of the elegant satin or velvet *basquinas* and rich *mantillas* which are seen elsewhere, the *basquina* is of yellow, red, green, brown, or black serge, wide-spreading and short, shewing, in place of the handsome shoe and stocking of a Spanish belle, red or yellow woollen hose half way up to the knee. The *mantilla* worn here is heavy and dismal; and, instead of the usual Spanish head-dress, the Murcian ladies have their sleek, shining, black hair combed backwards tight and flat; while the graceful fan is superseded by a huge chaplet of large beads, reaching nearly to the ground, which they carry almost always about with them, even when not going to church. The military, the merchants, and the official persons dress in the French fashion. The common people in towns, wear a round hat over a black net, a black waistcoat, and a large brown or black mantle. The Murcian peasant wears, instead of a cloak, a piece of coarse striped woollen, half an ell wide and two ells long, thrown over the right shoulder, a white jacket, short white trowsers, not covering the knee, a red woollen girdle, shoes of hemp or bass, and either a round or slouched hat, or a leathern cap called a *montera*. From his general appearance and

sun-burnt complexion, he might be taken for a Moor.

The people here have a peculiarly fierce and sullen cast of countenance, which, Laborde says, is not belied by their actions. They are vindictive in the extreme, and Murcia often exhibits scenes of sanguinary contention or vengeance. The unvaried, gloomy life which they lead, gives them a wild, embarrassed air. The Murcians indulge in no kind of amusement. Balls, plays, or parties are unknown in the capital. Music and dancing, so passionately enjoyed in every other part of Spain, particularly in the adjoining provinces of Valencia and Andalusia, have little attraction for the Murcians: they scarcely ever dance, and sing still seldomer. Every other hour is spent in smoking cigars, which is performed with a true Moor-like taciturnity, and they are then in a state of torpid bliss, from which it seems that nothing could rouse them. The women, too, partake of this universal spirit of indolence; they neither knit, sew, nor embroider; to be able to read is a rare accomplishment, and still more rarely can one be met with who is able to write. Laborde states, that it is difficult to procure a female servant in summer time, because the lower classes can then, for half a real (1¼d.) a day, procure enough fruit, vegetables, and pimiento to subsist upon. Thomson's beautiful allegory of the Castle of Indolence, is here outdone by the gross reality,—indolence without elegance, and apathy without tranquillity of mind.

This province has no language peculiar to itself. The Castilian is spoken, but corrupted by a mixture of Arabic and the Valencian dialect, so that a Castilian is at a loss to understand a great number of the expressions in familiar use.

The immediate environs of the capital present nothing remarkable; but about four leagues from Murcia, upon the road to Madrid, is the little village of Archena, celebrated for its hot mineral waters. M. Peyron gives the following vague account of this phenomenon.

"They have their source in a rock of no very great elevation, which is commanded by lofty mountains. Thirty paces from the Segura, a canal has been made from this source, upon which are three baths; one for gentlemen, another for ladies, and a third for the poor. The first is within ten or twelve feet of the source, and the water is so hot, that it is impossible to support the heat of it, even with the hand, for more than a second. Before it is bathed in, it is beaten for a considerable length of time. The water is of a bluish cast, very heavy, and bad tasted. The froth, or scum, at the source, takes fire like sulphur or brandy. Those who drink the waters must use a great deal of exercise to carry them off. Their effect is a violent and continued perspiration; and it sometimes happens, that persons who have bathed in them are obliged to change their linen five or six times in the day. There are about fifty small huts near the baths, where lodging may be had; but provisions must be carried thither, in case of a few days' residence." These baths were famous under the Arabs; and were evidently well known to the Romans, as the ruins of a large edifice were discovered here, in digging to make a bath, with fragments of columns and a Roman inscription. A physician of Villena published an account of these waters in 1760, but they have never been analysed.

Hot springs are found in several other parts of this province; four in a cavern near Carthagena, of

which no use is made; the waters of Mula, seven leagues from Murcia, where are baths, which are badly kept; the waters of Fortuna, four leagues from those of Archena, which are used both as a bath and as an alterative; and the waters of Almaha, six leagues from Murcia, to the right of the road to Lorca, where there is a bath of Moorish construction. No naturalist has hitherto explored the mountains of Murcia, which present to the geologist, a "virgin land." Mines of lead and copper were formerly worked near Lorca; silver is said to be found in the chain of mountains near Almazaron; sulphur abounds in a tract of country, four leagues in extent, near Ulasparra; bole, resembling the Armenian bole, near Fortuna; and nitre and alum in several places. The mountains are chiefly limestone; but, in some parts, schist prevails. Slate is found in some places, and they abound with various kinds of marble.

The road from Murcia to Carthagena is described by Laborde as good, except at one place, where it has not been finished. Mr. Townsend also speaks of the "beautiful new road among the mountains." Great improvements must have been made since Mr. Swinburne travelled, ten years before.* "From Murcia," he says, "we struck directly across the vale into the chain of mountains on the south side of the town; and the rugged bed of a torrent was all the road we found. You cannot conceive of a more shocking one. The naked, clayey cliffs that hemmed us in on each side, were very unpleasant. As soon as we emerged from this ditch, and surmounted a very greasy, marly height, we found before us a plain almost without

* M. Peyron says: "The roads from Murcia to Carthagena are horrid, and in the high mountains over which they pass, are such as the waters have made them."

bounds, and absolutely without a tree. A ridge of mountains separates it from the sea-shore. Our muleteers pointed out to us the break in it, where the island of Escombrera closes in the harbour of Carthagena. A cluster of islands to the left appear as if they had been struck off the mountain by some furious earthquake, and tumbled headlong into the sea. Most of the plain is sown with barilla." This is the *campo* of Carthagena, which Mr. Townsend describes as deriving its "extraordinary fertility" from the constant mouldering of the high and tender schistous rocks, by which means the soil is constantly fed with a rich, loamy clay. In cutting through these hills, they discovered vast strata of shingle, white quartz, limestone, and silicious grit. The whole plain on which Carthagena stands, was formerly called *Campus Spartarius*, and the city itself Spartaria, on account of the large quantities of *spartium*, or Spanish broom, found both in the plains and the mountains. The pitiful *venta* of Jimenado, about five leagues from Murcia and four from Carthagena, is the only resting-place for travellers on this route.

CARTHAGENA.*

THE origin of this city is carried back by Spanish writers into the times of fable; but thus much appears certain, that the coast of Murcia was the first part of Spain that was colonised by the Carthaginians, previously to which it is said to have been the country of the Contestani. This city was either founded or rebuilt by Asdrubal, in the year of Rome 562, who gave it the name of New Carthage. It remained in the possession of the descendants of the first colonists

* Properly Cartagena, for so it is written by the Spaniards.

till the year 208 B.C., when it was taken and pillaged by Publius Scipio and Caius Lælius. At that period, according to Livy, it was, next to Rome, one of the richest cities in the world; and so immense was the booty which fell into the hands of the conquerors, that the possession of the city was the smallest part of what they gained by the expedition.* Under the Romans, Carthagena formed the capital of a province, called *Provincia Carthaginiensis*;† and its metropolitans, after the introduction of Christianity, long disputed the primacy with the archbishops of Toledo. The remains of the Roman road are said to be still visible, which began at the *Campus Juncarius*, at the foot of the Pyrenees, and, passing through Tarragona, Tortosa, Saguntum, and Setavis, turned at length towards the sea, and came out into the *Campus Spartarius*. Carthagena is said to have been totally destroyed by the Vandals, at the beginning of the fifth century, in their wars with the Gothic allies of the Emperor Honorius, but was soon rebuilt.‡ At the time of the Moorish invasion, the kingdom of Murcia was governed by Theodomir, Prince of the Goths, by whom a brave resistance appears to have been made; and the original treaty between this prince and Abdelazis is still preserved in the Escurial.‖ Its subse-

* Scipio is said to have carried away with him, 64 military banners, 276 golden cups, 18,300 marks of silver, besides vessels of the same precious metal, 40,000 measures of wheat, and 160,000 measures of oats; — "*ut minimum omnium inter tantas opes bellicas Carthago ipsa fuerit.*"

† Several ancient inscriptions have been found among the ruins of the Roman city. In a garden at Espinardo, near Murcia, is a stone having on one side the stern of a ship, and on the reverse, Pallas holding an olive-branch, and at her feet a cornucopia and a caduceus.—BOURGOING, vol. iv. p. 121.

‡ Bourgoing, vol. iv. p. 121. Gibbon, vol. vii. chap. 33.

‖ See Laborde, vol. ii. p. 155. In this treaty, it is stipulated on

quent conquest by Alfonso X. of Castile has already been mentioned. The modern town was built or enlarged in the reign of Philip II.

The harbour of Carthagena is the finest in Spain, and one of the very best in Europe. It is a basin formed by nature in the figure of a heart. The island of Escombrera blocks up the entrance, and shelters it from the violence of winds and waves. High, bare mountains rise from the water's edge on the east and west, while on the north, a low, narrow ridge of hills, on which the city is built, shuts out the view of the inland country.* Under the mountains on the right hand, which is the deepest and safest position in the whole bay, a large fleet may lie in security, and out of sight of all ships at sea or in the narrow entrance of the harbour. The east side of the port is much shallower, and the anchorage is loose and sandy. Vessels have been forced from their anchors here by gales from the S.W. and dashed against the rocks; but in every other part of the harbour, the waters are so perfectly dormant, that, Mr. Swinburne says, "during

the part of Abdelazis, the son of Musa, that Theodomir shall not be disturbed in his principality, and that the lives, property, and Christian churches of his subjects shall be respected, on condition of his delivering up the seven towns of Orihuela, Valentola, Alicante, Mula, Vacasora, Bejar, Ora (or Opta), and Lorca; and becoming tributary to the khalif. The treaty is dated A.H. 94, answering to A.D. 715.

* M. Peyron remarks, that Virgil might seem to have taken for his model the harbour of Carthagena, when he described the port at which Æneas landed in Italy:

> "*Est in secessu longo locus: insula portum*
> *Efficit objectu laterum, quibus omnis ab alto*
> *Frangitur, inque sinus scindit sese unda reductos.*
> *Hinc atque hinc vastæ rupes, geminique minantur*
> *In cœlum scopuli, quorum sub vertice latè*
> *Æquora tuta silent.*" VIRG. Æneid. i. 161.

the stay of the many hundreds of vessels destined for the Algerine expedition, they became absolutely putrid and infectious from the filth thrown out of the ships."

"Carthagena occupies the declivity of a hill with the little plain intermediate between it and the harbour. The city is protected from the south and from the west by high mountains and barren rocks; but, to the north and the east, it is open, and communicates with an extensive valley, which is separated from the plain of Penilla (on the south) by a ridge of hills, a continuation of the above-mentioned mountains; while another chain divides it, on the north, from the vale of Murcia. On the summit of the hill, commanding the city, is a castle now going to decay; but on the adjacent heights are raised considerable works to defend the harbour, with the arsenals and dock-yard. The streets are wide, and the houses are commodious. They have generally flat roofs, where, after sunset, the inhabitants assemble to enjoy the refreshing breeze. The new parade, extending east and west, at the head of the harbour, and looking through its entrance into the Mediterranean, is built on a regular plan; and as a high schistous rock has been cut away to make room for this long range of habitations, excellent vaults are excavated behind each house for the service of the merchants. At the end of this stands the royal hospital, a vast establishment, destined to receive the sick from the dock-yard and the army, with the *presidiarios*, or criminals condemned to the galleys. The cathedral, a miserable pile, is now degraded to a parish church. Of the convents, not one appeared worthy of notice, but the proportion allotted to the men is certainly remarkable: out of nine, eight are occupied by

monks."* At the foot of the summer-evening walk, is a small church, erected in honour of St. James (Santiago), the patron of Spain, who is believed to have landed here from Palestine, when he came to convert this country to Christianity. "The arsenal is a spacious square, south-west of the town, under the mountains. Forty pieces of cannon defend its approach from the sea; but, on the land side, it is without defence. The timber for ship-building lies in ponds, behind a long range of magazines for stores, opposite to which the men-of-war are moored in a wet-dock, each before the door of its own magazine. The ships are heaved down in a dry dock, which, by reason of the back-water, and the springs that ooze through the marshy soil, would never be clear of water, were it not for several fire-engines continually going, and for the great pump which is plied without intermission by Spanish criminals and Barbary slaves." Of the former, at the date of Mr. Swinburne's visit (1775), there were 800; of the latter, 600. "Most of these wretches," he says, "are kept at it sixteen hours out of the twenty-four, by four hours at a time; some work only twelve, and most of the Moors only eight hours. It is the hardest labour in the world. Ten men are set to each pump, to the number of above a hundred in the room above ground, and as many in a kind of dungeon below. In summer time, scarcely a day passes without some of them dropping down dead at their work; and even at this cool season of the year, we have met some of them every day being carried to the hospital. The despair that seizes them is so outrageous, that, if they can get within reach of any weapon, there are many instances of

* Townsend.

their having plunged it into their own breast, or that of some person near them, which answers the same purpose, a speedy deliverance from all their woes by death. As we were looking at them, a dirty little keeper struck a fine, tall Moor over the head, for leaving his pump to beg of us. The Mussulman darted a look of indignation at his tyrant, and resumed his task, without saying a word or shrinking from the blow. On our leaving this house of sorrow, we met several strings of galley-slaves, going to relieve those at work, or to fetch their provisions. The Moors had an M on the sackcloth that covered them; and the whole gang were lively pictures of malady and despair. The king allows them a *pistreen* a day, but I am afraid they are defrauded of their allowance; for we saw them making their dinner upon black bread and horse-beans boiled in salt water. We returned quite melancholy from this scene of woe. The only reflection that diminishes our compassion, is the atrociousness of the crimes that have brought the Christians to the chain: none are here, that have not deserved death in fifty shapes. One boy, of fifteen years old, is here for the murder of his father and mother; and either murder, sacrilege, or some such enormous and horrible offences have been perpetrated by almost all those condemned for life to this punishment.* The

* The number of those condemned *for life* to this punishment, formed, however, a small proportion, according to the information obtained by Mr. Townsend; and a very different class of offences appears to have been visited with this horrible penalty. "They have here," says this Traveller, "two thousand criminals, *chiefly smugglers*, who, being condemned to work in chains, are called *presidiarios*. These are employed in the most servile labour, some for five, others for seven years; and at the expiration of these terms, they are turned loose upon the public, not corrected or trained to habits of industry, but vitiated by the society of thieves, and unfitted to pursue the occupations to which they had been

severity exercised over the Moorish captives, is not so easily reconciled to the principles of humanity, and the meek doctrines of Christianity. Retaliation does not seem a sufficient plea."

The fishery at this sea-port is considerable. The half-profits claimed by the crown amounted, in 1786, to about 1000*l.* a year. The fishery within the port was the property of a chartered company: in the open sea, all mariners who were enrolled, were allowed to fish. Within the port, they take chiefly the *atun*, or tunny, and the *melvas*. Large quantities of *esparto* ropes and cables are manufactured here: mats also, and a fine thread fit for weaving, are made of the same rush.* But the most important production of the country, and the most valuable article of commerce, is barilla, which has already been mentioned as indigenous in Valencia and Murcia. The country producing this plant is about sixty leagues in length, and eight in breadth, extending along the coast of the

originally trained. Before the introduction of steam-engines, these wretched creatures were obliged to work at the chain-pumps; but such was their malignity arising from despair, that many, watching their opportunity, would throw stones, nails, and bits of iron into the pumps to spoil them. These two thousand slaves require five hundred soldiers constantly to guard them; and, independently of this expense, they cost each to Government five reals a day for their maintenance." The state of prisons in England, and the whole administration of our criminal system, were not, at that period, such as would have entitled an Englishman to pass any severe reflections on the Spanish Government on this ground.

* This valuable rush, from which the plain derived its ancient name, is the indigenous production of all the high, uncultivated mountains in the south. "And here," remarks Mr. Townsend, "we cannot help admiring the bounty of Providence in thus administering to the wants of man, and giving abundantly in these dry and elevated regions, where neither hemp nor flax will grow, materials proper for his clothing, and for the employment of his industry."

Mediterranean. The duty upon this article, of seventeen reals a quintal, amounted, in 1786, to 25,500*l.* *per annum.* All the varieties may be collected in the swamp called *Almojar*, eastward of the city. * Next to the barilla of Spain, that of Sicily is the best. The chief imports are bale goods, and *bacallao* (codfish) from Newfoundland.

The population of Carthagena was computed, in 1786, at 15,000 families, or between 60 and 70,000 souls; but the clergy, the monks, the military, and the convicts are not included in this enumeration, and probably, not foreigners. If this be the case, the native population is, we suspect, much over-rated. Laborde says, that very few Murcians reside here; that most of the inhabitants are English, French, or Italians, who are either merchants, soldiers, or sailors; but the number of officers of every rank, agents, and official persons, is very considerable. In entering this town, he says, after travelling through Murcia, one might fancy one's self in a new country. Here, strangers are well received, and the inhabitants are very affable and sociable. There is, moreover, no want of amusements. The municipal government is vested in a military governor, with his *alcalde mayor*; thirty *regidores*, whose office passes by inheritance, if not previously sold; and two syndics, annually chosen by the people as their peculiar guardians, but they are completely under the influence, Mr. Townsend says, of the hereditary regidores, who may here be called the thirty tyrants. To render the yoke still more intolerable, the *escribanos del numero* succeed likewise by inheritance, and may even sell their office by shares,

* See page 155. Also, Townsend, vol. iii. p. 131; and Swinburne, vol i pp 200—206.

to be served by a deputy. Owing to the corruption and mal-administration which result from this state of things, murders and assassinations are frequent; and "for many years, not an offender had been punished for these crimes, because the most atrocious villain, unless miserably poor, may find refuge in the rapacity of the *escribanos*. Want of fidelity to matrimonial vows is equally prevalent at Carthagena as in the other provinces of Spain."* This corrupt state of morals, Mr. Townsend ascribes to the celibacy of the clergy as "the predisposing cause;"† while the immediate source of the great relaxation of principle which has comparatively of late years gained ground in Spain, he considers to be, "the introduction of Italian manners on the arrival of Charles III. from Naples, with the previous want of reasonable freedom in the commerce of the sexes. If, in addition to these," adds this intelligent Traveller, "I might ven-

* "It was here, that a gentleman one morning said gravely to his friend, 'Before I go to rest this night, the whole city will be thrown into confusion.' This he himself occasioned by going home an hour before his usual time, to the no small vexation of his wife and of her *cortejo*, whose precipitate retreat and unexpected arrival in his own house occasioned the like confusion there; and thus, by successive and similar operations, was literally fulfilled the prediction of the morning."—TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 145.

† "My friends, the inquisitors of Barcelona," says Mr. Townsend, "gave me to understand, that, *as long as the priesthood should be debarred from marriage, and confessors continually liable to abuse the confidence reposed in them*, the secrecy, the prudence, and, when needful, the severity of the Inquisition, would be the only effectual restraint against licentiousness and the universal depravation of morals."—TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 335. Whether the Inquisition had any such effect as is here ascribed to it, may be doubted. Very different was the original purpose of the institution, and very different the crimes of which it took cognizance; but the plea here set up for this infamous tribunal is a striking admission of the demoralising influence of those essential parts of the papal system, clerical celibacy and auricular confession.

ture to assign another cause for this universal depravity of morals, I should seek for it in the want of admonition. The secular clergy seldom, if ever, preach. The monks, indeed, descant upon the virtues of their patron saint, or labour to extol some favourite *Senora*" (the Virgin Mary under some particular form of invocation), " and to set up altar against altar; but they seldom appear solicitous to improve the morals of the people; and, except during Lent, they do not often exhort the people to repentance." A remarkable exception, however, to the general dearth of pulpit orators, was exhibited in the person of a Capuchin monk, Father Diego of Cadiz, who visited Carthagena during Mr. Townsend's stay in that city, and preached every evening in the great square to more than ten thousand people. This good father was learned, eloquent, and modest; and although the vulgar ascribed to him a variety of miracles, unlike Prince Hohenlohe, he disclaimed all such pretensions. Such was the admiration he excited, that it was found necessary that he should be constantly attended by a guard, to prevent his clothes from being torn off his back for relics! Many of his admirers would assemble soon after sunrise, to secure good places, though he did not preach till six in the evening. " What he spoke was heard with the most profound attention; and after one discourse, on the forgiveness of injuries, many were reconciled and became good friends, who had previously been at enmity. One sermon, however, had a pernicious tendency; yet, so deeply is a sense of honour, of gratitude, and of filial piety impressed on the human heart, that few appeared to relish his doctrine, or to be convinced by his arguments; but most of his hearers seemed to shudder with abhorrence, while he endeavoured to persuade

them, that, in cases of heresy, they were in duty bound to accuse, at the tribunal of the Inquisition, their nearest and their dearest friends." *

Carthagena is subject to visitations of an endemic bilious fever, arising, it is supposed, from the proximity of the extensive swamp called the *Almojar*, containing many hundred acres, which might easily be drained, so as to produce the most luxuriant crops. During the three autumnal months of 1785, 2,500 persons were carried off by this complaint, and, in the following year, 2,300 more; yet, no attempt was made to remedy the evil, except by an order from the court, that no other medicine than a certain famous prescription, should be on any account administered to the sick! The extensive valley or *campo* to the north and east of the city, is varied by beautiful undulations, and, although not watered by any rivers, might easily be rendered very fertile by irrigation, as is evident from a few scattered *norias*. Among the most common trees here, are the elm, the poplar, the mulberry, the olive, the fig, the pomegranate, the apricot, the palm, the palmito, and the *ginjolero*, or jujube-tree. The soil is loamy, composed of calcareous earth, sand, and clay, from the adjacent mountains, which are of schist, covered with limestone; in some places, sandstone appears, with shingle and sea-shells; and at no great distance from the city is a mountain, whence they obtain the gypsum used for plaster. The whole country abounds with salt-petre. Near the village of Almazaron, situated on the chain of mountains running towards the sea, is found a fine red earth, called *almagra*, which is used for polishing looking-glasses at the manufactory of San Ildefonso: it is also worked

* Townsend, vol. iii. pp. 147, 8.

up with tobacco, at Seville, to fix the volatile particles, to give it a colour, and at the same time communicate that softness which is the principal recommendation of Spanish snuff. Near Almazaron, also, are remains of a silver mine, which is said to have been once very productive. Rock crystal is stated by Laborde to be found on two mountains, one to the east, and the other to the west of Carthagena, near some quarries of marble, mixed with slate. He also mentions a remarkable cavern near Carthagena, where are traces of an alum mine and four hot springs. The plume-alum or *pseudo-asbestos*, is found near Almazaron.

FROM CARTHAGENA TO LORCA.

THE road to Granada, for about two leagues from Carthagena, runs in a north-westerly direction over the fertile plain, but soon afterwards becomes narrow and stony as it enters the mountains, and continues so to Fuente el Alomo, a decayed village. Near Tutana, the traveller re-enters the direct road from Murcia to Granada.* This is a considerable, but ugly and ill-built village, with a population of 12,000 souls, who derive their support chiefly from the cultivation of barilla. At the end of the square there is a marble

* The road from Murcia passes over the most beautiful part of the *Huerta* along a causeway. At the village of Don Juan, it leaves the Carthagena road, and turns to the right into an extensive campo, flat, dusty, and naked, having only a few olives here and there. The country improves as the traveller approaches Lebrilla, a distance of four leagues from Murcia. A magnificent *posada* here, built by a duke of Alba, forms a contrast to the miserable appearance of the houses. A league and a half further is the *Venta de Alhama*. The town of that name is seen to the right at the foot of the mountain Espuna. It is said to have been founded by the Moors, and the name is evidently Arabian, being taken from the hot baths for which it is famed. The ruins of an ancient castle

fountain, ornamented with sculpture; but whether ancient or modern, we are not informed. The road still continues level, but insensibly approaches the naked, gloomy mountains which close the view on all sides, till, at the end of four leagues more, after fording the little river Guadalentin, the traveller enters the town of Lorca, built at the foot and on the eastern declivity of the *Sierra del Cano*. This has been a considerable place; but, the lower part of the town being concealed by trees, nothing is seen on approaching it, but a number of low houses, crowded together on the side of the mountain, of the same colour as the schistous rock, and seeming to belong to it. This is the old or upper town, which was built by the Moors, and some portions of the walls and gates are still visible; the streets here are narrow, steep, and crooked, and the houses ill built and low. The lower town, built on the plain, has been more regularly laid out and better built. Lorca contained, in 1786, nine parish churches, seven monasteries, two nunneries, two hospitals, and about 22,000 inhabitants. Connected with one of the churches is a collegiate chapter, with an abbot at its head; and some writers have claimed for this town the honours of an episcopal see of high antiquity. Its bishop is said to have been president at a council held at Toledo, A.D. 610. The great church has an elegan façade, with numerous columns of the Corinthian and Composite orders. The interior has nothing remarkable: M. Peyron, however, speaks of some excellent paintings. In this church, says Mr. Townsend,

are still to be seen here. It contains, besides its parish church, two monasteries, an hospital, and about 4,000 inhabitants. Two leagues and a half from the *venta*, the traveller arrives at Tutana. The chief production of the intermediate tract is olives. Extensive vineyards and mulberry-plantations are seen at intervals.

every criminal may find a safe asylum. A curious episcopal grant also, the property of this church, secures forty days' indulgence every time any penitent shall say a pater-noster and an ave-maria to six saints therein named, for the benefit of the souls in purgatory. An old castle, built on the edge of a high rock, which formerly commanded and over-awed the town, is now regarded with indifference: the outer walls alone remain.

Lorca is supposed to be the Cliocrata of the Itinerary of Antonine. It has sustained several sieges. Being so near the frontier of the kingdom of Castile, after the annexation of Murcia to that crown, it was exposed to repeated attacks from the Moorish sovereigns of Granada, till Ferdinand the Catholic at length made himself master of their states. From that time, its fortifications were neglected, and Lorca became an open town. The surrounding country is pleasant, and the meandering stream of the Guadalentin spreads fertility around. The place was in a thriving condition, when the enterprise of a speculator led, by its melancholy issue, to the subversion of its prosperity. Of this catastrophe, Laborde gives the following account.

The individual in question, whose name was Lenourda, had, it seems, obtained permission and authority from the Spanish Government, to collect all the waters of the district into a common reservoir, similar to that of Alicant. The basin was "superb," and appeared to be of solid construction. Its extent, we are told, was immense,—terrific: it contained a body of water sufficient to irrigate the whole territory of Lorca for years. A violent prejudice, however, existed against the undertaking; and the proprietors murmured at the high price they were obliged to pay

for the water. It is even said, that the monopoly operated to the discouragement of cultivation, and that the prosperity of Lorca was materially affected by it, owing to the ignorance and obstinacy of the proprietors, who refused to avail themselves of a public benefit. Government at length interposed, and some of the refractory malcontents were arrested, imprisoned, and banished. Such appears to have been the state of things for nearly ten years, when, suddenly, on the 30th of April, 1802, the waters, which had been insensibly undermining the reservoir at one angle, rushed out with an impetuosity that swept away every thing before it, — public buildings, trees, rocks, men, and animals. "One of the suburbs of Lorca, consisting of about 600 houses, the parish church, two convents, two hospitals, some barracks, mills, and fountains, were swallowed up and disappeared in an instant. Similar ravages occurred wherever the water reached; that is to say, to an extent of sixteen leagues. Many villages were destroyed; the city of Murcia, twelve leagues distant, and the town of Orihuela, four leagues further off, suffered, though in a smaller degree, from its effects. The number of people who perished, is estimated at 6,000, and the animals at 24,000. The fields, formerly so beautiful, are now bare, impoverished, covered with sand, rubbish, heaps of stones, and pieces of wood. In many places, marshes have been formed. In short, this once opulent tract of country has fallen suddenly into a state of perhaps irreparable wretchedness. The loss is estimated at two millions sterling." The inhabitants of Lorca mention with high satisfaction, as an evident instance of Divine retribution, that the unhappy director of the works, who, by his vexatious and tyrannical conduct, had rendered himself an ob-

ject of general execration, happened to be there at the time, and was among the first who perished.* The catastrophe has cast an air of melancholy over this once cheerful and agreeable town. The beautiful promenades, laid out on the banks of the river, are now deserted, and even the manners of the inhabitants are changed. On one side of these promenades, a fine broad road had been made for five or six leagues, and planted with trees, leading to the port of Las Aguilas. It is entered by a new bridge of three arches thrown over the Guadalentin.

Lorca had formerly manufactories of silk, linen, and woollens, but they had gone to decay so long ago as the time of Mr. Townsend's visit. The saltpetre works were extensive. The olive, the mulberry, the tamarisk, and the oleander† flourish in the adjacent plain; and wheat, in the irrigated land, yields a hundred fold. Lead and copper exist in the adjacent mountains. Mr. Townsend speaks of a project for opening a communication between Lorca and Carthagena by means of a canal, which would, no doubt, have the happiest effect, if practicable, on its trade; but subsequent events have rendered the plan abortive. Lorca is reckoned thirteen leagues from Murcia.

* It is remarkable, that a similar catastrophe is said to have destroyed the ancient city of Mareb, in the kingdom of Yemen, or Arabia Felix.—See MOD. TRAV., *Arabia*, p. 28. The construction of these *norias*, or reservoirs, is known to have been originally the work of the Arabian conquerors of Spain; and the pantano of Alicant and the reservoir of Lorca, are evidently works of the same kind as the reservoir of Abdus-shemss at Mareb.

† The Spaniards call the oleander *amarga adelfa* (bitter rose-bay), on account of the bitterness of its leaves; and it serves as a constant comparison in Spanish sonnets and novels.

FROM MURCIA TO LA MANCHA.

THE route given by Laborde from Murcia to the frontiers of La Mancha, which is the Madrid road, comprises almost every other place of any consideration in the province. The distance is twenty-five leagues and a half, in a direction chiefly north-west. The first town on this route is Molina, pleasantly situated on the edge of a valley watered by the Segura, but separated from the Huerta by arid mountains. It is surrounded with orchards and gardens, and contains about 3,000 inhabitants. Soon after passing through this town, the traveller leaves on the left the village of Lorqui, situated on the left bank of the Segura, not far from which place, Massanissa, the Carthaginian general, gained a signal victory over the Romans in A. Rom. 542. Cneius and Publius Scipio were slain in two successive engagements, and their army was almost cut off. At the *Venta de la Rambla*, four leagues from Murcia, the road enters the mountains, and passes over some very steep and rugged defiles. The frightful pass called the *Puerto de la Pinosa*, is so narrow, that if two carriages meet, they can neither pass nor turn; and in other places, two horses cannot go abreast. A wretched *venta*, and some scattered houses called *Las Caserias de la Pinosa*, are all that occur between Molina and Jumilla, a distance of six leagues and a half. The latter is a small town, with about 8,000 inhabitants, situated at the entrance of a fine valley, at the foot of a mountain surmounted by a ruined castle. No other town occurs till the traveller reaches Albacete, a distance of nearly twelve leagues. For two hours beyond the *venta* of Albafana, the road passes over a wild, parched up, and sterile country, where no signs of either man or animal re-

lieve the dreary solitude. The whole tract is described as gloomy and tedious in the extreme. Beyond this, some beautiful valleys and horrible mountain defiles alternately succeed. One of these passes bears the name of *Puerto del Infierno*. At Albacete, the route enters the new road from Madrid to Valencia.* This small town (formerly called Cetede) stands in a large and fertile plain, yielding wheat and barley, wine, fruit, and saffron. The population is stated at between 7 and 8,000 inhabitants. The place is remarkable for nothing but its annual cattle fair, and its indifferent cutlery. A dry, bare, and for the most part uncultivated tract extends from this town to the confines of Castile, — a distance of not quite three leagues.

The greater part of the kingdom of Murcia would thus seem to be occupied by arid mountains, almost entirely uninhabited; yet, there can be no doubt, that the vine and the olive might in many parts be successfully cultivated. The valley of the Segura and the *campos* of Carthagena and Lorca are the only parts which are well peopled. The roads, if roads they can be called, are almost every where in a state of nature. In fact, this province has never been thoroughly re-peopled since the expulsion of the Moors, and every thing has been retrograding, rather than improving, since then.

FROM LORCA TO GRANADA.

In pursuing the road to Granada, we now enter on that beautiful portion of the Peninsula, which was known to the ancients under the name of Bætica, and

* From Albacete, it is a distance of fourteen leagues to the Valencian frontier. The only town which occurs is the small town of Almanza, near which, in 1707, the Duke of Berwick defeated the army of the Archduke Charles in a sanguinary engagement, and by his victory secured the throne to Philip V.

is the Andalusia of the middle ages, although that term is now understood as restricted to the kingdom of Seville.* The kingdom of Granada, which occupies the south-eastern portion of this tract of country, is fifty-eight leagues in length, extending along the Mediterranean to the Straits of Gibraltar, where it joins the province of Seville. Cordova bounds it on the north-west, and Jaen on the north, while, on the north-east, it borders on Murcia. It contains only three ports: those of Almeria and Malaga, which are episcopal cities, are well known; the third, Amunecar, is inconsiderable. Guadix, an inland city, is also the see of a bishop; and Granada, the capital, is an archiepiscopal see.

From Lorca to the *posada* of Lumbreras, the road is tolerable; but, from the latter place to Velez el Rubio, you travel for five leagues in a *rambla*, or the dry bed of a torrent, amid nothing but deserts and naked rocks on either side, and surrounded by high mountains, which early in the winter are covered with snow.† Velez, the first town in the kingdom of Granada, stands in an open and fertile plain: it has still some remains of Moorish fortifications, and is com-

* The name of Andalusia (Handalusia) is applied by the Arabs to the whole peninsula. It signifies in Arabic, the region of the west, and appears to be, in fact, a translation of the Hesperia of the Greeks.—See GIBBON, chap. li. § 5, *note*. The etymology which derives the name of the country from the Vandals, (*quasi* Vandalusia,) is nothing more than a plausible, but not very probable conjecture.

† These barren and desolate hills, the resort of wolves, are covered, Mr. Townsend says, with the *esparto* rush. Near the frontier, he mentions a castle called Xixena, erected on the summit of a craggy schistous rock, to guard this pass, the ruins of which still preserve a respectable appearance.

manded by a castle now going to decay. It contains a beautiful church and a magnificent *posada*, (both built by a dutchess of Alba about the middle of the last century,) a solitary convent, and a population of about 3,000 families. It is nearly twelve leagues from Lorca. For three leagues further, the road ascends through the sandy channel of a torrent, shut in by rugged schistous rocks, to the miserable village of Chirivel; and it is another very long league to Vertientes, so called from the parting of the waters, which here take opposite directions; one portion passing by the Dauro to the Xenil, and thence, by the Guadalquiver, into the ocean; while the other, by a shorter passage, joining the Guadalentin, reaches the Mediterranean near Carthagena. In these elevated regions, the *esparto* rush can scarcely be distinguished from grass. At a lower level, it becomes long and rampant, and there the vines begin to shoot, wheat thrives, and the lark is heard to warble in the air. For three tedious leagues beyond the *puerto* or pass of Vertientes, the road continues to wind among hills covered with rosemary and other aromatic herbs, but chiefly with the *esparto*, and a few straggling pines: over them are scattered herds of goats, to whom the whole tract of country seems given up. Mr. Townsend saw one flock of 2,000, "all as white as milk." Cullar de Baza, a wretched village built at the foot of a mountain of gypsum, four leagues from Chirivel, is the next place. The sides of the rock are here excavated into numerous habitations, in which three-fourths of the inhabitants reside. "These are real dens," says M. Peyron, "inherited from the Moors." A more particular description of them is necessary to enable us to determine whether these dens were originally designed as

habitations, sepulchres, or granaries.* The little valley which supplies this village, is about a quarter of a mile in breadth, enclosed by barren, gypseous mountains: it is well watered, and produces flax, hemp, and wheat, while the vine flourishes on the more elevated spots. The same formation, horizontal strata of gypsum, continues for the next two leagues to the town of Baza, which stands in a bottom at the extremity of an extensive, well-watered, and fertile vale. The road from Cullar is a gradual descent, the view being bounded every way by snowy mountains, in a circumference of about thirty miles. Nitre is remarkably abundant over the whole extent of this gypseous country. Baza (the ancient Basti) is said to contain 6,500 families: it has nothing remarkable. The edifices are chiefly of Moorish construction, built of brick or a hard cement. Nine old iron cannon, which were used, as an inscription on one of them testifies, in the conquest of this city from the Moors in 1489, now serve as pillars to the front of the market-house. The high mountain, at the foot of which this city is built, is, during the greater part of the winter, covered with snow; and the road to Guadix lies for the most part over bleak, uncultivated heights, with a succession of rapid ascents and descents, which, after rain, are inconceivably slippery and fatiguing. There occur many considerable tracts of land, however, which might be watered and rendered fertile. The natural productions are pines, juniper, savin, rosemary, and other aromatic herbs, and Spanish broom (*esparto*). There are also some remains of ancient forests of evergreen oak. Numerous herds of goats and of swine are met with. The flesh of the latter, during three-

* Probably, the latter, like those of Tortosa and Granada.

fourths of the year, is almost the only food of the inhabitants of these parts, who have a saying:

" No hai olla sin tocino,
Ni sermon sin Augustino."

" There is no good dish without lard, nor good sermon in which St. Augustine is not quoted." At about half way between Baza and Guadix is the *venta* of Gor, near which a little brook brings down from the mountains metallic particles, apparently of copper and lead; but mines of gold are said to have been wrought in this vicinity in days of yore.

Guadix, an episcopal city, is situated at the foot of the *Sierra Nevada*, on the same kind of gulley as that of Baza. " The clay-hills that encompass it on all sides," says Mr. Swinburne, " are the most extraordinary in nature; they are very high, and washed into broken masses resembling spires, towers, and mishapen rocks. Whole villages are dug in them, the windows of which appear like pigeon, or rather, marten holes.* The passage through is remarkably singular, winding for half a mile between two huge, rugged walls of earth, without the least mixture of rock or gravel." The city is ancient, and is said to have been formerly called Acci, or Colonia Accitana. It was taken from the Moors in 1252, by Alfonso the Wise, but was recovered by them; and it was not till the year 1489, in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, that they were finally expelled from this place. The climate here is so much colder than in almost every other part of the kingdom of Granada, that neither orange nor olive-trees flourish. There are some manufactures of hemp, flax, and silk; but the article

* This is the case more especially at the village of Parillena, a league from Guadix, and, as has been mentioned, at Cullar.

for which the city is most celebrated, is pocket-knives.* The city contained, in 1786, five parishes, five monasteries, and two nunneries, with upwards of

* Mr. Townsend describes one of these knives which was purchased by his guide. "The blade was sixteen inches long, and when open, it was prevented from shutting again by a strong spring. Although this was the first of the kind I had ever seen, my imagination immediately suggested the purpose for which it was designed. Having produced his weapon, he began to brandish it; then, supposing himself to have been suddenly attacked by some one armed with an implement similar to his own, he stooped forwards, bending his knees, and holding his hat before him by way of shield, in his left hand; while his right hand, depressed and grasping hard the handle of his knife, directed its elevated point. Thus prepared, and casting a look of fury on his supposed antagonist, he sprang forwards, and appearing to have received in his hat the thrust of his opponent, he gave the fatal blow, which was in one instant to rip up the wretched victim.

"These knives are strictly forbidden; but, unfortunately, inveterate custom is too powerful for human laws, more especially in a country where the passions are easily inflamed, and where, from the nature of the judicial process, the laws must be weak in the extreme. For no information can be taken but by the *escribanos*, nor can any judgement be pronounced but upon their record. Now, as these officers are usually poor, and not unfrequently destitute of principle, they may, without much difficulty, be persuaded to change the complexion of an action, and at pleasure to make it either black or white. Hence, from impunity, assassinations are frequently committed; and, since little security can be derived from the laws, it becomes the interest of every man to be armed for his own defence. With this view only, he procures the formidable weapon; but, when provoked to anger, his views are changed; and that which was designed for his own protection, becomes the instrument of treachery, of malice, and of revenge."—Vol. iii. p. 103.

These dagger knives were the terror of the French in the Peninsular war. M. Thiers, in one of his spirited sketches, introduces an old French serjeant thus commenting on the villanous weapon: "My musket goes only in one hand, but this serpent of a knife passes from one hand to another; it sees you when you do not see it, and it penetrates you as it would into the crum of this loaf. The road is always open,—there are never any enemies before you; but behind—if you only want to drink at a pool, or to cut wood, you must be on your guard against the very stones. All

8,300 inhabitants. The cathedral has a whimsical façade, exhibiting, Mr. Townsend says, three orders of architecture, the Corinthian, the Composite, and the *Anomalous*, while the interior is Doric and Corinthian. The effect, however, is not unpleasing; and the marble, obtained from the vicinity of the city, is beautiful and of various colours, red, grey, white, and green. The bishop is a suffragan, not of Granada, but of Seville, though that city is upwards of sixty leagues distant. The *alameda* is well planted, and very neat. Guadix was a favourite city with Mehemed Abou' Hadjad, one of the Moorish kings of Granada, who succeeded his father in 1379.

The *Cuesta Yerma*, which the traveller has to ascend after leaving Guadix, is "perhaps not to be matched," Mr. Swinburne says, "for badness, by any carriage-road in the world. All our mules, yoked together," continues this Traveller, "were scarcely able to wrench either of the carriages out of the narrow pass between the rocks, or drag them up the almost perpendicular parts of this abominable mountain." In the sides of this ravine are seen many horizontal strata of rock, separated from each other, ten, fifteen, or even twenty feet, by beds of clay, sand, and gravel. Mr. Townsend, who travelled this road on his return from the South of Spain to Barcelona, describes the country to the right, on approaching Guadix, as having a most singular appearance, resembling the stormy ocean. "The innumerable pointed hills seem to have attained what may be called their quiescent state, being no longer fretted, washed away, and ravaged by heavy rains and vernal torrents.

on a sudden, one of these fellows rushes out, and you are dead before you have time to cry, *Vive l'Empereur*····My poor children," addressing some young soldiers,) "God keep you from Spain!"

Protected by herbage, they are now fed by every shower, and in the spring exhibit a delightful verdure." The learned Traveller supposes, that, at some remote period, the whole of this country formed one extensive plain, "but, being composed of soft materials, and subject to violent rains, it was soon torn in every possible direction by gulleys, which, in process of time, became deep ravines, till, the mouldering angles of high cliffs being washed away, the wide expanse was left covered with hills, whose pointed tops are nearly all on the same level." The hardships to be endured in the journey from Granada to Lorca, he remarks, what with bad roads, wretched fare, and worse lodging, can be fully comprehended only by those who have passed this way. "Certain it is," says Mr. Swinburne, "that no man has as yet undertaken this tour a second time for pleasure; and, if my advice be listened to, nobody will ever attempt it once." After escaping from the last-mentioned defile, the road lies over a high, level country, winding round the snowy mountains of Granada, to "the dismal, ruinous village of mud walls," called Isnallos, five leagues from Granada. Soon after, proceeding down a valley, and over some heath and forest land, the traveller comes in view of that city and its plain,—"beautiful beyond expression, even in its winter weeds; what must it be," exclaims Mr. Swinburne, "when decked out in all the gaudy colours of spring!" *

GRANADA.

THE Moors are said to have regretted the loss of no part of their Spanish possessions so much as this

* The distance from Cartagena to Granada is computed at fifty leagues. It is forty-five *posts* from Murcia to Granada.

once affluent and beautiful capital, the Damascus of the West. They still offer up their supplications, every Friday, for the recovery of this city; and the last Moorish ambassador who came into Spain, having obtained permission to visit Granada, is stated to have shed tears on entering the Alhamra. They have left more monuments behind them in this city, than in any other in the Peninsula; and it might almost be supposed, M. Peyron remarks, that they intended to make it the great depository of their learning, religion, and magnificence. There is not a wall which does not bear some marks of their greatness. Of the history of Granada prior to the Arabian invasion, nothing certain is known. The Spanish antiquaries assign to its foundation the remote date of 2808 years B.C. That a Phenician colony established itself here, is highly probable. It is alleged, that the ancient walls of the Alcaçaba are of a different sort of masonry from those of the Romans and Saracens, and similar to the acknowledged works of the Carthaginians. Granada was known to the Romans under the name of Illiberia, and the city was made by them a municipal colony, with the title of *Municipium Florentinum Illiberitanum.* The modern name signifies pomegranate; and a split pomegranate, the arms of the city, appears upon every gate or ornamented post in the streets and public walks.* The alluring beauty of

* Some writers suppose, that this name was given to the city on account of the fanciful resemblance which it bears to that fruit, when ripe; the two hills representing the bursting skin, and the houses crowded into the intermediate valley, the pips.—(Swinburne, vol. i. p. 218.) It may have been intended merely to characterise the deliciousness of the situation. Remmon, or Rimmon, the Hebrew for pomegranate, was the name of several ancient cities in Syria; and if it be true, as Swinburne states, without giving his authority, that the Arabs still call this city *Roman*, and the Jews,

the country, the striking situation of the place, and the salubrity of the air, united to recommend Granada as a most attractive object to the victorious Saracens; but it was for a long time eclipsed by Cordova and other Moorish cities. The march of Tarik, the Moorish general, after the battle of Xeres, was directed through the Sierra Morena to Toledo. That decisive battle was fought in the 91st year of the Hejira (July, A.D. 710). A detachment of his army was sent to reduce the sea-coast of Bætica; but, from the treaty between Abdelaziz and Theodemir, the Gothic Prince of Valencia, dated nearly three years later, it would seem that the south-eastern portion of Andalusia did not, in the first instance, attract the attention of the conqueror. Nor does Granada appear to have been for some time considered as a place of importance. The present town is said to have been built in the tenth century, at which time it belonged to the dominions of the sovereigns of Cordova. It was originally assigned to a colony of Arabs from Syria and Irak.* The Alhamra, however, does not appear to have been built for above five hun-

Rimmon, there can be no doubt that Granada is the mere translation of its ancient name. The etymological reveries which derive it from *Gar*, a cave, and *Nata*, Count Julian's daughter (whose name, however, others make to have been Cava); or, according to others, *Nata*, the daughter of Liberia, the wife of Hesperus, or a goddess of that name; or from *Grana*, corn; are undeserving of serious notice, as they only serve to prove the ignorance of those who framed them.

* "The royal legion of Damascus was planted at Cordova; that of Emesa at Seville; that of Chalcis at Jaen; that of Palestine at Algezira and Medina Sidonia; the natives of Yemen and Persia were scattered round Toledo and the inland country; and the fertile seats of Granada were bestowed on ten thousand horsemen of Syria and Irak, the children of the purest and most noble of the Arabian tribes. Egyptian Arabs shared the establishments of the Moorish legions at Murcia and Lisbon."—GIBBON, chap. li. § 5.

dred years after the descent of the Arabs, towards the close of the thirteenth century. It was not till the year 1235, that, by the revolt of Mehemed Alhamar, this city became the capital of a new sovereignty, and began to acquire celebrity in the Moorish annals. That monarch is said to have been the ally, or rather, the tributary of St. Ferdinand, King of Castile, whom he assisted in his conquest of Seville. By his son, Muley Mehemed Abdallah, the building of the Alhamra is said to have been begun; and the great mosque was completed by his successor early in the fourteenth century. The Gate of Judgement, which forms the principal entrance, bears an inscription, attributing its erection to the unfortunate Yusef Abu Hagiagi: it is stated to have been finished in the 749th year of the Hejira (A.D. 1338). From that period, the kingdom of Granada began to decline. Its prosperity revived for a short time, under the enlightened government of Mehemed Abu Hadjad (A.D. 1379—1392); and for a hundred years after, though the scene of several sanguinary intestine revolutions, it continued to resist all the efforts of the Christian kings. But at length, in the year 1492, after a nine months' blockade, it was surrendered by the last of its sovereigns to the triumphant arms of Ferdinand and Isabella; and the Moorish power in Spain was extinguished, after their empire had subsisted for seven hundred and eighty years. At that period, the city is said to have been three leagues in circumference; its ramparts were defended by one thousand and thirty towers; and it comprised within its walls 70,000 houses, and 400,000 inhabitants. This enormous population is accounted for by the number of Moors who, as the Christians extended their conquests in Andalusia, took refuge in Granada as a secure asylum against the Spanish power.

In 1350, it is said to have amounted to only half that number. Of its appearance about this time, a native author (Ibn Alkhatib) gives the following description :—

"The city of Granada is surrounded with most spacious gardens, where the trees are so thick set as to resemble hedges, yet not so as to obstruct the view of the beautiful towers of the Alhamra, which glitter like so many stars over the green forests. The plain, stretching far and wide, produces such quantities of grain and vegetables, that no revenues but those of the first families in the kingdom are equal to their annual produce. Each garden is calculated to bring in a neat income of 500 pieces of gold, out of which it pays thirty *minæ* to the king. Beyond these gardens lie fields of various culture, at all seasons of the year clad with the richest verdure, and loaded with some valuable vegetable production or other. Adjoining, you may see the sumptuous farms belonging to the royal demesnes, wonderfully agreeable to the beholder, from the large quantity of plantations of trees and the variety of the plants. These estates occupy an extent of twenty miles square. For the purpose of superintending and cultivating them, are kept numbers of able-bodied husbandmen and choice beasts, both of draught and burden. In most of them are castles, mills, and mosques. Many towns, remarkable for the number of their inhabitants and the excellence of their productions, lie dispersed round the boundaries of these crown lands. The plain contains also large tracts of meadow and pasture, villages and hamlets full of people, country-houses and small dwellings. I have heard the names of above three hundred hamlets in the environs of Granada. Within sight of the city

walls may be reckoned fifty colleges and places of worship, and above three hundred water-mills.

" The Granadians are orthodox in religion, of the sect of the Malekites. They pay implicit obedience to the mandates of their princes, are patient of labour, and above measure liberal. They are in person comely, of a middle stature, with small nose, clear complexion, and black hair; elegant in their language, but rather prolix in discourse, and in disputing, haughty and obstinate. The greater number of their families derive their origin from houses of Barbary. Their dress consists of the most costly Persian or Turkish robes, of either fine woollen, linen, silk, or cotton. In winter, they wear the *albornos*, or African cloak; in summer, a loose white wrapper. The soldiers of Spanish extraction use in war a short coat of mail, a light helmet, Arabian horse-furniture, a leathern buckler, and a slender spear. Those born in Africa bear very long staves, called *amras*. Their dwellings are but slightly built. It is very curious to assist at the diversions of their festivals; for then the young people assemble in sets at the dancing-houses, and sing all manner of licentious ballads. The citizens of Granada eat the very best of wheaten bread throughout the year. The poorer sort and labourers are sometimes, in winter time, obliged to put up with barley bread, which, however, is excellent in its kind. They have every sort of fruit in abundance, especially grapes, of which the quantity eaten is incredible. Immense are the hoards of all species of dried fruits. They have also the secret of preserving grapes sound and juicy from one season to another. Both their gold and silver coin are good and near to purity. Many are the amusements and recreations of

the citizens, when they retire in autumn to their pretty villas in the suburbs. They are passionately fond of decking themselves out with gems and ornaments of gold and precious stones. The women are handsome, but of a stature rather below the middle size, so that it is rare to meet with a tall one among them. They are very delicate, and proud of encouraging a prodigious length of hair; their teeth are white as the driven snow, and their whole person is kept perfectly sweet by the abundant use of the most exquisite perfumes; they are light and airy in their gait, of a sprightly, acute wit, and smart in conversation. In this age, the vanity of the sex has carried the art of dressing themselves out with elegance, profusion, and magnificence, to such an excess, that it can no longer be simply called luxury, but is become absolute madness."*

To every house in Granada was attached a garden, planted with orange, lemon, citron, laurel, myrtle, and other odoriferous trees and shrubs. All the houses were supplied with running water, and in every street, through the munificence of successive sovereigns, there were copious fountains for the public convenience, and for the performance of religious ablutions. Whatever, in short, could tend to promote the convenience and comfort of life was here to be found in the richest profusion. The houses in the Albaycin (the highest quarter in the city), which, in the time of the Moors, were ten thousand in number, were particularly elegant, being beautifully orna-

* Translated by Swinburne from Casiri's Latin Translation of the Arabic MS. entitled, "The History of Granada, by Abi Abdallah Ibn Alkhatib Absaneni," written A.H. 778 (1378), and preserved in the Escurial.—*Travels*, vol. i. p. 255.

mented with *damasquina* work.* The surrounding country is described by Alkhatib as rivalling in beauty the environs of Damascus. "Language, indeed," he says, "can with difficulty describe how happy, how charming it is rendered, by the softness of the air, the mildness of the climate, the bridges over the river, the splendour of the temples, and the convenience of its market-places (bazars?)." "Its territory abounds with gold, silver, lead, iron, tutty, marcasites, and sapphires. Among the plants growing on its mountains and in the marshes, are to be found the sulphur-wort, gentian, and spikenard. Its silken stuffs are deservedly reputed to be far superior to those of Syria, in beauty, softness, and fineness of texture." The surplus of the abundant crops produced by the exuberant fertility of the soil, was deposited in numberless granaries excavated in the sides of the mountains, which still remain, and furnish a wretched habitation to gipsies, who abound in this part of the Peninsula.

Such are the terms in which the native writers loved to dwell on the former glories of this Arabian capital. But, alas! exclaims Swinburne, "those glories have passed away with its old inhabitants; its streets are choked with filth, its aqueducts are crumbled to dust; its woods are destroyed; its territory is depopulated; its trade is lost.....Nothing but the numerous ruins scattered over its hills, can induce one to believe that those bleak, barren wastes, which make up more than two-thirds of the province, were formerly covered with luxuriant plantations of fruit-trees, abundant harvests, or noble forests." Still, however, the plain of

* A peculiar kind of stucco ornament invented at Damascus.

Granada forms one of the most delightful spots in the world; and the Alhamra remains, the pride and the disgrace of Spain.

Granada stands on two hills, at the foot of the *Sierra Nevada*, where two little rivers, the Dauro (*Auro*) and the Xenil (*Singilis*), form a junction, and, after watering the whole plain, take a westerly course, and flow on to Seville. The ancient palace of the Alhamra and the *Torre Vermeja* crown the double summit of the hill between the rivers: the other hill, north of the Dauro, is covered with the quarters of the Albaycin and the Alcaçaba. The remainder of the city extends along the skirts of the plain in a semicircular form. The *Vega*, or plain, which is between three and four thousand feet above the level of the sea,* is thirty leagues in length, by about sixteen in breadth. A gentle slope of beautiful hillocks bounds the horizon on all sides, except on the north, where the *Sierra Nevada* lifts it head into the regions of snow, and to the north-west, where the view is terminated by the bare summit of the *Sierra de los Infantes*.† The height of these mountains gives this elevated plain the appearance of a delicious valley. Mr. Jacob (of whose Travels in the South of Spain in 1809-10, we shall now have occasion to avail ourselves) thus describes the exquisite prospect which presented itself when he reached the top of some small hills within two leagues of the city, on the

* Mr. Jacob says, "about 1200 yards, or nearly three quarters of a mile." The latitude, according to Pedraza, is 37° 50′; but Francisco Dalman, who published a map of the kingdom in 1796, makes it 37° 22′.

† So called from the death of the princes of Castile, Pedro and Juan, who perished here, through the excessive heat and thirst, in a battle against the Moors, A.D. 1319.

road from Malaga. "The rich and populous country, well supplied with trees, the clear rivulets descending from the mountains, and artificially contrived to intersect it in every part; the splendid city, extending in a half-moon from the river, clothing the gradual ascent of a hill; the streets rising above each other; the profusion of turrets and gilded cupolas; the summit crowned with the Alhamra; the back-ground composed of the majestic *Sierra Nevada*, with its top covered with snow,—completed a scene to which no description can do justice; a scene, to view which we had travelled on horseback two hundred miles over the worst roads in the world, and which we nevertheless considered as amply repaying us for the fatigue we had endured, and the filth we had encountered. This place, however, should be viewed at a distance, and not be too nearly inspected; for the splendid poverty visible within, destroys the illusion created by a distant view."

The modern city contains, according to Mr. Townsend, twenty-three parish-churches, forty convents, three *beaterios*, seventeen *ermitas*, or chapels, nine hospitals, and eight colleges. It is the see of an archbishop, and the seat of one of the two high courts of chancery in Spain, the other being at Valladolid. The population in 1786, according to the Government returns, amounted to 52,325 souls; but Mr. Townsend, "upon good authority," is disposed to carry it as high as 80,000. Mr. Jacob states it at between 60 and 70,000 in 1810, adding, that it is capable of containing a much greater number.* "The streets," he says,

* Laborde says, only 50,000, which is conformable to a recent census, adopted in the *Manuel Géographique et Statistique de l'Espagne*. Of this number, Swinburne says, "only 18,000 are useful working hands: the surplus is made up of lawyers, clergymen,

" are generally narrow, and the houses by no means so handsome in their appearance as in the other cities I have seen." The market-place is spacious; but the houses which surround it are despicable: few of the upper apartments have glass in the windows, and the shops below are very indifferently supplied with goods. One part of the town, which, in the time of the Moors, formed the bazar, is not inhabited; but the gates which enclose it being shut at night, the property in the different shops is secured from theft. The city had formerly twenty gates: a few of these only are now entire, but the ruins of most of the rest are still in existence. The cathedral is a very splendid but irregular building, 425 feet in length, by 249 in breadth; and the great dome is 169 feet high, by 80 in diameter. It is divided into five aisles, adorned with Ionic columns. Its irregularity has arisen from its consisting, in fact, of three churches made into one, the royal chapel and the *Sagrario* having been taken into it. The most striking parts, Mr. Jacob says, are the high altar and the choir, in which the most beautiful marbles have been employed. Here are two fine monuments; one to the memory of Philip I. and his queen Joanna; the other to Ferdinand and Isabella. The dome is supported by twenty-two Corinthian columns; and colossal statues of the twelve apostles, gilt, are ranged on the architrave. Some of the best pictures of Alonzo Cano are in this church, and there

children, and beggars. There are no fewer than a thousand sturdy, able-bodied rascals, that live by alms and conventual donations." Mr. Townsend states, that the archbishop, who daily distributed bread to all applicants, counted them one day, and found the men 2,000, the women 3,024: at another time, the women were 4,000. And in this indiscreet and pernicious bounty, he was imitated by forty convents!

are two beautiful statues of our first parents, the size of life, and admirably executed, by the same artist. Here, too, Mr. Townsend says, is deposited the image of the Virgin, carried by Ferdinand and Isabella in all their wars as the pledge of victory.* The palace of the archbishop stands close to the cathedral: it is very extensive, and has a handsome appearance.† The captain-general of the kingdom of Granada resides in the palace of the chancery, which has a splendid façade, ornamented with alabaster columns and gilt balconies. Among the other public edifices, the church of *N. Señora de los Angustias* is distinguished by the profusion of fine marble, obtained from the neighbouring mountains,‡ and the execrable taste exhibited in

* Townsend, vol. iii. p. 65. Jacob, p. 290. Bourgoing (Peyron), vol. iv. p. 145. Laborde, vol. ii. p. 101. Pedro de Mena, the pupil of Cano, is also mentioned by Mr. Jacob as having contributed to the decoration of this cathedral. The equestrian statue of Santiago is deemed his best production. Among the best paintings in the cathedral, Mr. Townsend mentions those of Don Pedro de Athanasia, a native of Granada, especially his "famous picture" of S. Pedro de Narasco; also, "four incomparable pictures by Espanoleto, two good ones by Risueno, and one excellent by John of Seville. Here, likewise, is the famous sculpture of Charity."

† "I noticed it," says Mr. Jacob, "as the scene of some of the incidents in the history of Gil Blas, whose adventures are affirmed by all Spaniards to have been translated by Le Sage from one of their early novels."

‡ The dark-green, from the *Sierra Nevada*, is esteemed the most valuable. Tables of an extraordinary size of this marble were cut for the infant Don Luis about sixty or seventy years ago; but the roads have since been so cut up by the torrents as to render the carriage of such large blocks almost impracticable. There are also many handsome brown marbles and alabasters, diversified by an almost infinite variety of shades and tints. Swinburne states, that it was usual to frame fine specimens of marble, and hang them up, by way of ornament, in the apartments of the higher classes. One whole street was occupied by artificers employed in making little boxes, bracelets, necklaces, and other trinkets of the same materials.

its decoration. In the *Cartuxa*, or convent of the Carthusians, "every thing is valuable:" the marbles are in great variety and highly wrought, the pictures numerous and by the best masters. The dome of the church is covered with fine paintings in fresco by Palomino. The convents of *Los Angeles*, San Domingo, and the Capuchins, are also said to contain some good pictures. That of *San Juan de Dios* has a church admirable for its proportions, but ornamented in the most execrable taste. The ashes of the saint are here deposited in an urn five feet in height, surrounded by images of the thirteen apostles, about fifteen inches high, and covered with a dome, supported by eight columns, of about seven feet high; the whole of massive silver, exquisitely wrought. Such a treasure, at least, did this church possess in the year 1786. The church of the Geronimites contains a fine marble statue of its founder, Ferdinand Gonzales de Cordova, surnamed "the Great Captain."

The amphitheatre for bull-fights is built with stone, and passes for one of the best in Spain. There is a theatre, differing in its construction from those in other parts of Spain: the men occupy all the pit or ground-floor, and the women sit very high up, in a crazy kind of gallery. Most of the smaller houses, Mr. Swinburne says, are of Moorish building, or coarse imitations of that manner, the modern masons decorating their walls with uncouth copies of the Saracenic mosaics. "There is scarcely a house in Granada," he adds, "that has not over its door, in large red characters, the words, *Ave Maria purissima sin pecado concebida*, the *cri de guerre* of the Franciscans." *

* This doctrine of the immaculate conception of the Virgin Mary is a favourite tenet in Spain. According to Swinburne, all

Of the Moorish edifices within the city, Laborde mentions only a singular structure near the cathedral, "built in porticoes, supported by marble columns," which was formerly a mosque, but is now a parish church; and M. Peyron notices an edifice, over the gate of which is a long Arabian inscription, setting forth, that it was founded as an asylum for the benefit of poor or sick Moors, by King Abi Abdallah, in the 778th year of the Hejira (A.D.1376). In the first court, there is a fine reservoir, with two lions rudely sculptured in marble, through which the water runs into the basin; but the edifice is not otherwise remarkable.

THE ALHAMRA.

BUT we have too long detained the reader from the royal fortress and palace which forms the chief ornament of Granada, and the noblest monument of the Moorish dynasty. Like Windsor Castle, the Alhamra*

the knights of the new order of *Carlos Tercero*, all the ancient military orders, and all candidates for degrees, took an oath to defend by word and deed this monstrous dogma. The Dominicans were the grand antagonists of the Conceptionists. These inscriptions over the houses of the Granadines, however, were probably designed as a public confession of orthodoxy on the part of the old inhabitants after the conquest, that might serve to protect their effects from confiscation, on the suspicion of secret Mohammedism.

* Or *Medinet Alhamra* (erroneously written Alhambra), that is, the Red City; so called, according to the Arabian writers, from the colour of the materials. Other derivations less probable have been assigned. Alkhatib, in particular, ascribes its name to the circumstance of the workmen having wrought at it by candle-light. We are not informed whether the vicinity affords a red earth: if it does, not only would the former etymology be established, but the coincidence would be remarkable, that a red soil is found in the *Agro Damasceno*, to which the environs of Granada have always been compared by the Moors.—See MOD. TRAV., *Syria*, vol. ii. pp. 38, 74. By the modern Spaniards, the Alhamra is called *La Sierra del Sol*, the Mountain of the Sun, it being exposed to the rising sun.

is finely situated on the brow of a steep hill, commanding an extensive prospect over the fertile vale, and towering with venerable aspect above the city. The sides towards the citadel are so dilapidated, or so encumbered with modern buildings, that very few traces of the ancient external walls are now visible; but the interior is in tolerable preservation. Since the conquest of Granada by Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1492, the Alhamra has undergone various alterations. The Emperor Charles the Fifth caused a magnificent edifice to be commenced on the ruins of the offices of the old Moorish palace, with the view, it is supposed, of making it his constant residence; but it was never completed; and the suite of apartments which were constructed, like all the rest of the Alhamra, are falling rapidly to decay. "At present, the walls are defaced, the paintings faded, the wood-work is decayed, and festoons of cobwebs are seen hanging from the ceiling. In the works of the Arabs, on the contrary, the walls remain unaltered, except by the injuries inflicted by the hand of man. The colours of the paintings, in which there is no mixture of oil, on removing the particles of dust, appear to have preserved their brightness. The beams and wood-work of the ceilings present no signs of decay; and spiders, flies, and all other insects shun these apartments at every season." * "All the ornaments of the Alhamra are intermixed with more modern ones of the age of Ferdinand and Isabella, and of the Emperor Charles the Fifth, whose arms, together with some of their successors, destroy in some degree the

* "The art of rendering timber and paints durable, and of making porcelain, mosaics, arabesques, and other ornaments, began and ended in Western Europe with the Spanish Arabs."—*Hist. of the Mahom. Empire in Spain*, p. 196.

effect of that illusion which might otherwise transport the beholder to the palace of the Khalif of Damascus, or to the scenes of the Arabian Nights. This execrable taste is even carried so far, that an image of the Virgin, or an inscription in praise of the Catholic conquerors, very frequently stands by the side of others of opposite import."

The road to the Alhamra is by a winding ascent through a wood of lofty elms, mixed with poplars and oleanders, and some orange and lemon trees. By the side of the path are beautiful marble fountains, from which transparent streams are constantly rushing down.* Here, the melodious warbling of nightingales may be heard, not only at the midnight hour; it is equally "the delight of noon." A large fountain, ornamented with imperial eagles and other sculptures and bas-reliefs in good taste, but much dilapidated, adorns the platform near the top of the hill. It bears an inscription, *Caesari Imperatori Carolo V. Hispaniarum Regi.* "Here," says Mr. Swinburne, whom we must now take as our *cicerone*, "you turn short to the left, and come under the walls of the inner enclosure. Its appearance is that of an old town, exhibiting a long range of high, embattled walls, interrupted at regular distances by large, lofty, square towers. These have one or two arched windows near the top, and a precipitate slope from the bottom into a dry ditch. The whole is built with round, irregular pebbles, mixed with cement and gravel. Some parts are covered and

* This wood, Swinburne says, is intersected by wild, neglected walks, where streams of clear water, finding their passage obstructed by the rubbish of their old channels, spread over the whole road. In like manner, the water, diverted from its proper conduits, and suffered to run at random, has almost destroyed the sculpture of the beautiful fountain erected by Charles the Fifth.

smoothed over with a thick coat of plaster: in other places, mortar has been laid in between the stones, leaving as much of them uncovered as came to the level; then, the trowel has been carefully drawn round, forming about them triangles, half-moons, &c. Just before you stands the principal entrance into the castle, a square tower, built by the King Juzaf Abu-hagiagi in 1338, as an inscription informs us. From its being the place where justice was summarily administered, it was styled, 'the Gate of Judgement.' You pass through it under several arches, each of which is more than a full semicircle, resting upon a small impost, the ends of the bow being brought towards each other in the form of a horse-shoe. On the keystone of the outward arch is sculptured the figure of an arm, the symbol of strength and dominion. On that of the next arch is a key embossed, the armorial ensign of the Andalusian Moors.* Above it, the wall of this partition is covered with a beautiful blue and gold mosaic, in the middle of which the Christians have placed an image of the Virgin Mary. As this is not a gate ever used for carriages, the passage winds through several turns, full of images, indulgences, and altars, before you get through, out into a narrow street, between a row of shabby barracks on the right, and on the left the castle wall, supposed to have been built by the Phenicians. I examined the work very

* The key among the Moslems, answers to the cross among Christians: it is the symbol of their faith. It was, moreover, the armorial ensign of the Andalusian Moors. The hand was a symbol of Providence, as well as of the five fundamental tenets of Islam. A talismanic power was ascribed to it; and the Spanish women are said still to hang round the necks of their children, a collar made of little hands of ebony, box, or ivory, to preserve them from enchantments,—a superstition borrowed from the Moors.—BOURGOING, vol. iv. pp. 116—8.

narrowly, and found it consisted of a layer of cement one or two inches thick, upon which is placed flat-wise a stone of the same thickness, chiseled on the face into a kind of chequered design. This is the regular method employed from top to bottom. This lane ends in the great square, or *Plaza de los Algibes*, so named from the ancient cisterns, that undermine it from end to end, and are constantly fed by a supply of running water. The prospect from the parapet-wall is wonderfully grand, over the vale of Dauro, the Albaycin, and down the *Vega*. On the very brow of the hill, hanging over the city, stand the *Torres de la Campana* (Towers of the Bell), a groupe of high square buildings, which now serve for prisons. Below them, on the south side, on a slip of terrace, is the governor's garden, a very pleasant walk, full of fine orange and cypress-trees, and myrtle hedges, but quite abandoned. The view it commands is incomparable. Two large vases, enamelled with gold and azure foliages and characters, are the only ornaments left. These were taken out of the vaults under the royal apartments. On the right hand of the *Plaza de los Algibes* is a solitary gateway, formerly the entrance into some of the outward quadrangles thrown down by Charles the Fifth, to make room for his superb palace, which stands facing the *Torres de la Campana*. This edifice is a perfect square, of 200 Spanish feet. It has two orders of pilasters, Doric and Ionic, upon a rustic base. The whole measures sixty-two feet from the top of the upper entablement to the ground. Three of the fronts are free from all other buildings; the fourth, that to the north, is joined and connected with the ancient palace of the Moorish kings. It was never finished, which is much to be regretted by all lovers of the fine arts, for there are few edifices more de-

serving of their admiration. The architect was Alonzo Verruguete, a native of Paredes de Navas, near Valladolid. In this work he has discovered a most transcendent genius, grandeur of style and elegance, and chastity of design.....The doors are designed in a great manner. The bas-reliefs, figures, festoons, medallions, &c., are of excellent invention and execution; the ornaments of the cornices, windows, and capitals, are delicate and suitable to the general effect. On the pedestals of the columns that support the entablement of the great door, are reliefs on dark marble, that, for polish, might pass at a little distance for bronze. The Doric door in the south side, called *el Zanguenete*, has something simply elegant in the taste, and new in the ornamental part. The pediment is filled with a scroll thrown with great ease, on which is inscribed *Plus Outre*, the motto of the emperor, which he never failed introducing into every public work he undertook. You come through an oblong vestibule into the court which forms the centre of the palace. It is an exact circle of 144 feet diameter, round which runs a Doric colonnade, or portico, of thirty-two columns, supporting an upper gallery of an equal number of pillars of the Ionic order. They are all of them of one entire block of reddish marble. The portico is nineteen feet wide, and serves as a communication with the staircase and the intended apartments, which are disposed round the court in various forms and proportions. The roof of the gallery is crumbling away very fast, and many of the columns are much damaged. The apartments never had any other covering than the sky; and nothing but the matchless temperature of the climate could have saved this beautiful work so many years from total ruin. The magnificence, the unity of this whole pile, but, above

all, the elegance of the circular court, quite transported me with pleasure on the first view; and I have ever since found my admiration increase in proportion to the number of my visits.*

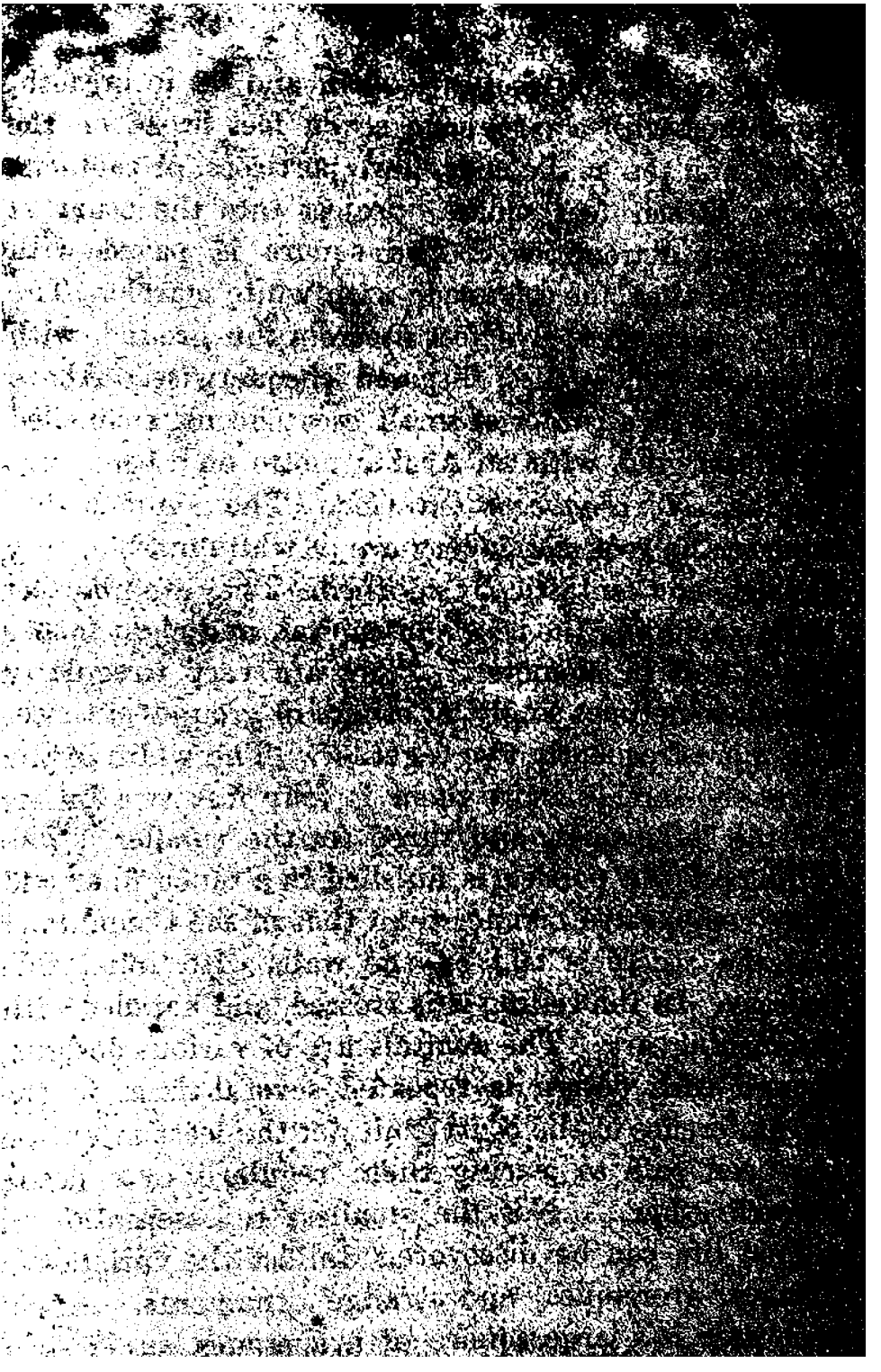
"Adjoining, to the north, stands a huge heap of as ugly buildings as can well be seen, all huddled together, seemingly without the least intention of forming one habitation out of them. The walls are entirely unornamented; all gravel and pebbles daubed over with plaster by a very coarse hand. Yet, this is the palace of the Moorish kings of Granada, indisputably the most curious place within that exists in Spain, perhaps in Europe. In many countries, you may see excellent modern as well as ancient architecture, both entire and in ruins; but nothing to be met with any where else can convey an idea of this edifice, except you take it from the decorations of an opera, or the Tales of the Genii. Passing round the corner of the emperor's palace, you are admitted at a plain, unornamented door in a corner. On my first visit, I confess I was struck with amazement as I stepped over the threshold, to find myself on a sudden trans-

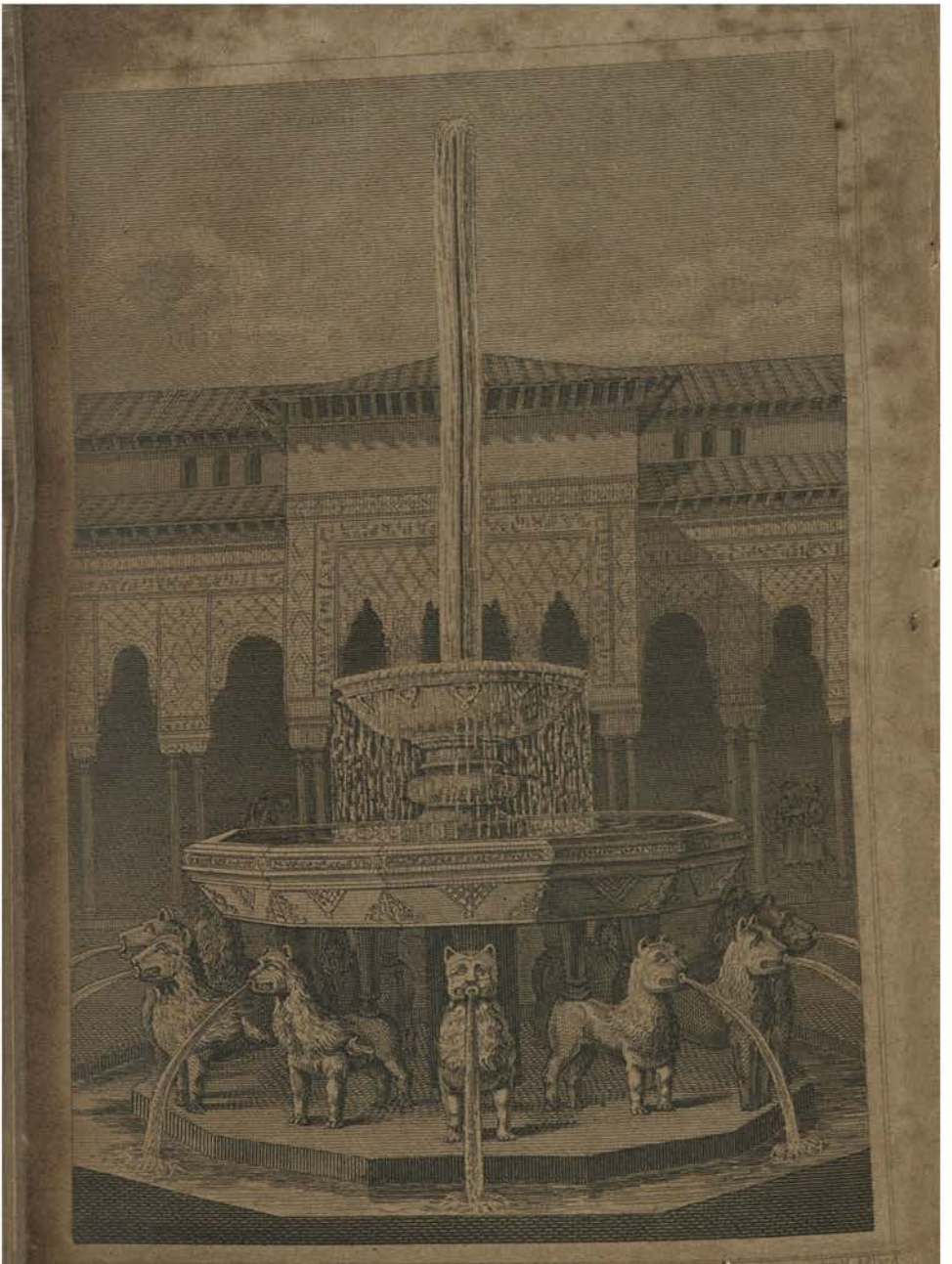
* This palace is said to have been erected with the money which the emperor had the art to obtain from the Moors, under the pretence of allowing them liberty of conscience. They advanced, at two payments, 160,000 ducats, for which they received nothing but promises, which were shamefully violated. At the death of Charles the Fifth, this palace was abandoned. "Few buildings," says Mr. Jacob, "can exceed this in beauty. Perhaps the Banqueting-house at Whitehall more nearly resembles it than any other building in England, and may give some idea of it." The contrast between the exterior beauty of this palace and the outward meanness of that of the Moorish kings, is very striking and characteristic. It is on the inside of their dwellings that the Asiatics lavish all their ts of decoration. For this, the state of society may seem to account, which requires that wealth should conceal itself under the garb of meanness, and that the palace should also be a fortress.

ported into a species of fairy-land. The first place you come to, is the court called the *Communa*, or *del Mesucar*, that is, the Common Baths; an oblong square, with a deep basin of clear water in the middle, two flights of marble steps leading down to the bottom, on each side a parterre of flowers, and a row of orange-trees. Round the court runs a peristyle paved with marble. The arches bear upon very slight pillars, in proportions and style different from all the regular orders of architecture. The ceilings and walls are incrustated with fretwork in stucco, so minute and intricate, that the most patient draughtsman would find it difficult to follow it, unless he made himself master of the general plan. This would facilitate the operation exceedingly; for all this work is frequently and regularly repeated at certain distances, and has been executed by means of square moulds applied successively, and the parts joined together with the utmost nicety. In every division are Arabic sentences of different lengths, most of them expressive of the following meanings: *There is no conqueror but God*; or, *Obedience and honour to our Lord Abouabdoulah*. The ceilings are gilt or painted; and time has caused no diminution in the freshness of their colours, though constantly exposed to the air. The lower part of the walls is mosaic, disposed in fantastic knots and festoons. The porches at the ends are more like grotto-work than any thing else I can compare them to. That on the right hand opens into an octagon vault, under the emperor's palace, and forms a perfect whispering gallery, meant to be a communication between the offices of both houses.

"Opposite to the door of the Communa, through which you enter, is another, leading into the *Quarto de los Leonès*, or apartment of the lions. This is an

oblong court, 100 feet in length, and 50 in breadth, environed with a colonnade seven feet broad on the sides, and ten at the end. Two porticoes, or cabinets, about fifteen feet square, project into the court at the two extremities. The square is paved with coloured tiles, the colonnade with white marble. The walls are covered, five feet up from the ground, with blue and yellow tiles, disposed chequerwise. Above and below is a border of small escutcheons, enamelled blue and gold, with an Arabic motto on a bend, signifying, *No conqueror but God.* The columns that support the roof and gallery are of white marble, very slender, and fantastically adorned. They are nine feet high, including the base and capital, and eight inches and a half in diameter. They are very irregularly placed, sometimes singly, at others in groupes of three, but more frequently two together. The width of the horse-shoe arches above them is four feet two inches for the large ones, and three for the smaller. The ceiling of the portico is finished in a much finer and more complicated manner than that of the Communa; and the stucco is laid on the walls with inimitable delicacy. In the ceiling it is frosted, and handled with astonishing art. The capitals are of various designs, though each design is repeated several times in the circumference of the court; but not the least attention has been paid to placing them regularly or opposite to each other.....Not the smallest representation of animal life can be discovered amidst the varieties of foliages, grotesques, and strange ornaments. About each arch is a large square of arabesques, surrounded with a rim of characters, that are generally quotations from the Koran. Over the pillars is another square of delightful filigree-work. Higher up is a wooden rim, or kind of cornice, as much enriched with carving





THE COURT OF THE LIONS IN THE ALHAMBRA.

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as the stucco that covers the part underneath. Over this projects a roof of red tiles, the only thing that disfigures this beautiful square. This ugly covering is modern, put on by order of Mr. Wall, the late prime minister, who a few years ago gave the Alhamra a thorough repair. In Moorish times, the building was covered with large painted and glazed tiles, of which some few are still to be seen. In the centre of the court are twelve ill-made lions muzzled, their fore-parts smooth, their hind-parts rough, which bear upon their backs an enormous basin, out of which a smaller one rises. While the pipes were kept in good order, a great volume of water was thrown up, which, falling down into the basins, passed through the beasts, and issued out of their mouths into a large reservoir, where it communicated by channels with the *jets d'eau* in the apartments. This fountain is of white marble, embellished with many festoons and Arabic distichs.*

"Passing along the colonnade, and keeping on the south side, you come to a circular room, used by the men as a place for drinking coffee and sorbets. A fountain in the middle refreshed the apartment in

* The smaller basin is described by M. Peyron as an alabaster cup, or rather vase, of one single piece, six feet in diameter; and he adds, that it is said to have been made in imitation of the brazen sea of Solomon. Swinburne has given a pretended translation of the Arabic verses which are inscribed on this fountain, professing to take it from a Latin translation; but either he was imposed upon, or he has drawn upon his invention. M. Peyron has also given a translation, in which some approach to the meaning of the original is occasionally preserved; but it has neither the merit of fidelity nor of intelligibleness. The reader who wishes to see a competent version of these Arabian poems, may consult the Appendix to the History of the Mahommedan Empire in Spain (4to. London, 1816), in which they are given at length, as translated by Mr. Shakespear. It is doubtful, however, whether an accurate transcript has yet been made of the originals.

summer. The form of this hall, the elegance of its cupola, the cheerful distribution of light from above, and the exquisite manner in which the stucco is designed, painted, and finished, exceed all my powers of description. Every thing in it inspires the most pleasing, voluptuous ideas. Yet, in this sweet retreat, they pretend that Abou Abdoulah assembled the Abencerrages, and caused their heads to be struck off into the fountain.*

* The romantic though tragical story of the murder of the Abencerrages, as detailed by the Spanish historian Giles Perez, has furnished Dryden with the ground-work of his "Conquest of Granada;" and a Spanish ballad, translated in Bishop Percy's Relics of Ancient Poetry, is drawn from the same source. The story is well told by Swinburne. M. Peyron has given a translation from an Arabic MS. of the year 1492, purporting to be an official report of the transaction; but he does not state where the MS. exists; and it is very possibly the document referred to by Swinburne as having been *found* by Medina Conde, the genuineness of which he seems to think questionable. Doubts have been entertained respecting the whole transaction. The alleged facts were briefly these. In the reign of Abou Abdoulah, the four most powerful families in Granada were, the Alabeces, the Abencerrages, the Zegris, and the Gomeles. The head of the Abencerrages, Albin Hamet, (the Arabic MS. calls him Mahomed Aben Zurran,) was high in the king's favour, and "the queen called him her council." One of the Zegris, instigated by envy, resolved on pulling him down from this invidious eminence; and he adopted the diabolical scheme of privately denouncing him to the king as conspiring against his honour and his throne, charging him with a guilty intimacy with the queen. The credulous monarch, in the fury of jealousy, determined on the destruction of the whole house. They were invited to the palace; but no sooner had each unhappy victim entered the hall of lions, than he was seized and beheaded. Thirty-six of the noblest of the race had perished before the treachery was discovered by a page, and the alarm given in the city. The people flew to arms, and proceeded tumultuously to the Alhamra, resolved on the death of the tyrant. Abou Abdoulah escaped, but two hundred of the Zegris and Gomeles are stated to have been slain by the friends of the Abencerrages. At length, the tumult being appeased by the wisdom of Musa, brother to the king, a grand council was held, in which Abou Abdallah declared

"Continuing your walk round, you are next brought to a couple of rooms, supposed to have been tribunals, or audience-chambers. In the ceiling are three historical paintings, executed with much strength, but great stiffness in the figures and countenances. One of them seems to be a cavalcade; the other the entrance of some princess; and the third a divan. When these were painted, and what they are meant to represent, I could not make out; but our *ciccrone* naturally adapted them to the history of the sultana and the four Christian knights.*

his reasons for the punishment inflicted on the Abencerrages; and the queen was sentenced to be burned alive, if, within thirty days, she did not produce four knights to defend her cause against her four accusers. The fatal day arrived, and the queen, who had declined all the offers of the Moorish knights, was led forth to execution, when four Christian knights, disguised as Turkish horsemen, rode into the great square; these were no other than Don Juan de Chacon, Lord of Carthagena, to whom the queen had secretly written to implore his aid, accompanied by the Duke of Arcos, Don Alonzo de Aguilar, and Don Ferdinand de Cordova. Each Christian champion slew his antagonist, and the arch-traitor, Mahomed Zegri (the Arabic MS. calls him Zulem), with his dying breath, confessed the falsehood of the accusation against the queen, which he had invented to accomplish the ruin of his rival. The victors immediately left Granada without discovering themselves to any other person than the queen, who was escorted back to the palace in triumph. She inflexibly refused, however, to have any further intercourse with the king; and the secession of his ablest officers and most powerful nobles, left him so entirely at the mercy of his enemies, that in a few months, the Castilian gained possession of the Alhamra and Granada.

* The Author very justly supposes them not to be Moorish; first, because Abou Abdoulah could not be desirous to perpetuate the memory of a transaction so dishonourable to himself; and secondly, because an anathema is denounced by the Koran against all representations of living creatures. The lions, however, he remarks, may be brought as an argument against the latter reason; "and indeed they shew," he adds, "that the Granadine princes, as well as some of the Oriental khalifs, who put their own effigy on their coin, ventured now and then to place themselves above the letter of the law."

"Opposite to the *Sala de los Abencerrages*, is the entrance into the *Torre de las dos Hermanas*, or the Tower of the two Sisters, so named from two very beautiful pieces of marble, laid as flags in the pavement. This gate exceeds all the rest in the profusion of ornaments, and in beauty of prospect, which it affords through a range of apartments, where a multitude of arches terminate in a large window open to the country. In a gleam of sunshine, the variety of tints and lights thrown upon this *enfilade*, are uncommonly rich....The first hall is the concert-room, where the women sate: the musicians played above in four balconies. In the middle is a *jet d'eau*. The marble pavement I take to be equal to the finest existing, for the size of the flags and the evenness of the colour. The two sisters, which give name to the room, are slabs that measure fifteen feet by seven and a half, without flaw or stain. The walls, up to a certain height, are mosaic, and above are divided into very neat compartments of stucco, all of one design; which is also followed in many of the adjacent halls and galleries. The ceiling is a fretted cove. To preserve this vaulted roof, as well as some of the other principal cupolas, the outward walls of the towers are raised ten feet above the top of the dome, and support another roof over all; by which means no damage can ever be caused by wet weather or excessive heat and cold. From this hall you pass round the little myrtle garden of Lindaraxa, into an additional building made to the east end by Charles the Fifth. The rooms are small and low: his dear motto, *Plus Outre*, appears on every beam. This leads to a little tower projecting from the line of the north wall, called *El Tocador*, or the dressing-room of the sultana. It is a small, square cabinet, in the middle of an open gallery,

from which it receives light by a door and three windows. The look-out is charming. In one corner is a large marble flag, drilled full of holes, through which the smoke of perfumes ascended from furnaces below; and here, it is presumed, the Moorish queen was wont to sit, to fumigate and sweeten her person. The emperor caused this pretty little room to be painted with representations of his wars, and a great variety of grotesques, which appear to be copies, or, at least, imitations of those in the *Loggie* of the Vatican. They have been shamefully abused by idle scribblers. What remains shews them to be the work of able artists. From hence you go through a long passage to the Hall of Ambassadors, which is magnificently decorated with innumerable varieties of mosaics, and the mottos of all the kings of Granada. This long, narrow anti-chamber opens into the Communa on the left hand, and, on the right, into the great audience-hall in the tower of *Comares;* a noble apartment, thirty-six feet square, thirty-six feet high up to the cornice, and eighteen from thence to the centre of the cupola. The walls on three sides are fifteen feet thick, on the other, nine: the lower range of windows is thirteen feet high. The whole hall is inlaid with mosaic of many colours, disposed in intricate knots, stars, and other figures. In every part are repeated certain Arabic sentences. These inscriptions, dispersed all over the palace, prove that there is very little of it remaining that is not the work of Abulhaghagh, or of Abouabdoulah.

"Having thus completed the tour of the upper apartments, which are upon a level with the offices of the new palace, you descend to the lower floor, which consisted of bed-chambers and summer-rooms. The back stairs and passages that facilitated the intercourse

between them, are without number. The most ermarkable room below is the king's bed-chamber, which communicated, by means of a gallery, with the upper story. The beds were placed in two alcoves, upon a raised pavement of blue and white tiles; but, as it has been repaired by Philip V., who passed some time here, I cannot say how it may have been in former times. A fountain played in the middle, to refresh the apartment in hot weather. Behind the alcoves are small doors, that conduct you to the royal baths. These consist of one small closet, with marble cisterns for washing children; two rooms for grown up persons, and vaults for boilers and furnaces, that supplied the baths with water, and the stoves with vapours. The troughs are formed of large slabs of white marble. The walls are beautified with party-coloured earthenware. Light is admitted by holes in the coved ceiling. Hard by is a whispering gallery, and a kind of labyrinth, said to have been made for the diversion of the women and children. One of the passages of communication is fenced off with a strong iron grate, and is called the prison of the sultana; but it seems more probable, that it was put up to prevent any body from climbing up into the women's quarter.* Under the council-room is a long slip, called the king's study; and adjoining to it are several vaults, said to be the place of burial for the royal family. In the

* M. Peyron says: "The iron railing of the queen's prison and the corridor appeared modern, compared to the rest of the palace, and seemed to me to have been of the time of Charles V. The gallery leads to four apartments, built under the same emperor, on a base of Moorish construction. The superb cabinet, called the queen's toilet, joins these empty apartments. It is certain that this cabinet served for the toilet of the empress of Charles V., and since that time, was made use of for the same purpose by the Queen Isabella."

year 1574, four sepulchres were opened; but, as they contained nothing but bones and ashes, they were immediately closed again." *

M. Peyron mentions a "closed door" in the Hall of the Abencerrages, which, he says, communicates with the habitation of the Vicar of the Alhamra. "He is lodged in a kind of fortress, of which surprising things are related." From the Hall of the Baths, he also states, "a gallery leads to that of the Nymphs, so called from two female figures of white marble, sculptured with much art and exactness. The subterraneous chamber in which they were placed, contains several large urns, that formerly held the treasures of the Moorish kings. The Archbishop of Granada has lately forbidden these statues to be seen, from a regard to good morals, and he has taken away the key of the case in which they are preserved." They are generally supposed, he adds, to be the production of an Arabian artist, which is not very probable. If they exist, they will doubtless prove to be either some relic of antiquity, or, what is more likely, the work of some foreign sculptor of the age of Charles the Fifth, who is the only person likely to have introduced marble nymphs into this Mohammedan palace.

Although the Arabs were unacquainted with perspective, yet nothing, it has justly been remarked, can be more truly picturesque than their architecture, or better calculated to make a small building appear larger than it really is. Except in the side towards the precipice, where the prospect is very grand, the windows are so placed as to confine the view to the interior of the palace. The purport of an inscription

* Swinburne, vol. i. pp. 269—03.

in one of the apartments, is to this effect: "My windows admit the light, and exclude the view of external objects, lest the beauties of nature should divert your attention from the beauties of my workmanship." The arabesques, paintings, and mosaics give a consequence and interest to even the smallest apartment. The receding ornaments are illuminated in just gradations with leaf-gold, pink, light blue, and dusky purple: the first colour is the nearest, the last the most distant from the eye; but the general surface is white. In every part of the palace, they had water in abundance, and they seem to have had an almost magical control over the genial element;—sometimes making it spout in the air, tempering the aridity of the atmosphere; at other times, spreading it out in the midst of a court, in a large, oblong, glassy sheet, in which were seen repeated the architectural details, or the reflection of a serene azure sky. A long, narrow bed of roses bordered the basin on either side; and a perennial stream stole in at one end, and out at the other, leaving the surface, on a level with the paved floor, as smooth as a mirror. The whole range being on the same plane, the courts seemed but a continuation of the suite of apartments. Halls and galleries, porticoes and columns, arches and mosaics, with balsamic plants and flowers of every hue, were seen through the spray of playing fountains. Add to this, the costly furniture which once adorned this palace,—of citron, sandal, and aloes-wood, ornamented with ivory and mother-of-pearl, intermixed with burnished gold and cerulean blue,—vases of curious and costly workmanship, of porcelain, rock-crystal, sardonyx, or mosaic,—the rich hangings, flowery carpets, and luxurious sofas, or divans, the whole perfumed with the precious frankincense of Yemen;—and we

may form some idea of what this Arabian palace must have been in the days of Moorish grandeur, when the throne of empire in the Golden Saloon* was surrounded by the turbaned race in all their gorgeous costumes, or the princely inhabitants paced the Court of Lions, robed in fine linens, silks, and embroidery, glittering with gold and gems. At that period, the Gothic monarchs of Castile skirted their halls with mats, and covered the floors with bulrushes. What England was at this era, as to manners, arts, and luxuries, under her Edwards, may be learned from Froissart. But alas! this noble palace, Mr. Jacob says, is hastening to decay, and, without repairs, will, in a few years, be a pile of ruins. Its voluptuous apartments, its stately columns, and its lofty walls, will be mingled together, and no memorial will be left in Spain of the pomp and glory of the western khalifate.

The whole fortress of the Alhamra is very extensive, and contains a considerable number of inhabitants. It has a separate governor, with the title of alcalde. One part, in 1810, was converted into a prison for the French troops. Within the enclosure of the walls stands a mosque, now converted into a Christian church, the absurd ornaments of which form

* Such was the name given to the apartment now called *La Sala de Embaxadores*, described as being "arched so high, that giants may keep their turbans on." The *Sala de las dos Hermanas*, though not so large, displays still more ingenuity of construction. "The domes, in particular, are the most curious productions of architecture, without exception, that have ever been seen, and they are in excellent preservation. Notwithstanding the apparent slightness of the construction of the edifice, the resistance is so well adjusted to the impulse, that there is not an instance of any part being pushed out of its place, or of having sunk under the incumbent weight."—*Hist. of the Mahom. Empire in Spain*, p. 197.

a striking contrast to the simple columns of the original structure. M. Peyron mentions also a Franciscan convent, built upon Moorish ruins, near the palace of Charles V. "It was erected," he says, "when Philip V. and his queen Isabella Farnese came to Granada. The monks, without any respect for the noble marbles which attested the ancient magnificence of its former masters, have transformed a voluptuous palace into a number of vile cells."

THE GENERALIFFE.

THE Alhamra was the general residence of the Moorish sovereigns; but during the intense heat of summer, they usually removed to the royal villa of the Generaliffe, situated on the steep declivity of the opposite hill. In point of situation, it has the advantage over the Alhamra, and is greatly superior to it in the beauty of the grounds. The principal building stands on the acclivity of the mountain, behind which the gardens rise in the form of an amphitheatre, full of large trees, venerable with age, and fertilised by many rivulets issuing from the summit, which, after forming numerous cascades, lose themselves among the trees and flowering shrubs. Two ancient cypresstress still exist, whose foliagé overshadowed this romantic spot when it was the abode of pleasure and luxury. They are called the Cypresses of the Queen, from the tradition, that this was the place of guilty *rendezvous*, where the sultana of the last sovereign of Granada was charged with receiving her paramour. Altogether, this is the most delightful spot in the environs of Granada. You enter from the Alhamra by a low postern, through which Abou Abdoulah is said to

have made his escape when Ferdinand entered the city.* Above the Generaliffe itself, and near the top of the eminence, is a kind of stone bank cut out of the rock, which is said to have served the Moorish kings as a point of observation while the Castilians were besieging Granada. These traditions are of as doubtful a character, perhaps, as that which ascribes the building of this palace to a prince of the house of Omar, who was so fond of music, we are told, that he retired to this palace for the purpose of giving himself up entirely to this amusement. It is probably the more ancient palace. When Swinburne travelled, it belonged to the Conde de Campotejar, a Genoese nobleman of the house of Grimaldi, descended in the female line from the royal family of Granada.† The remains of the building, this Traveller represents to be scarcely worth looking at, the noblest halls and best-finished work having been almost entirely demolished, and the grand *jets d'eau* being no longer in repair. "A double

* This is stated by M. Peyron; but it does not appear that the king fled on the capitulation of Granada. He retired, agreeably to an understanding with Ferdinand, to the Alpuxarras. Swinburne mentions the story of his having burst into tears, as he took a last look of his beloved Granada from the hill of Padul; on which the Sultana Ayxa, his mother, exclaimed: "Thou dost well to weep like a woman, over the loss of that kingdom which thou knewest not how to defend and die for as a man."

† Swinburne, vol. i. p. 311. Spanish genealogies are not always more authentic than are some Welsh pedigrees (see p. 189); and we could have wished for something like historic authority for the singular circumstance here mentioned. The last Moorish sovereign of Granada retired to Fez, where he consoled himself by building some palaces in imitation of those he had left behind in Spain. He died in the year 1533, leaving two sons, Yusef and Achmed. Some of his posterity were remaining at Fez in the year 1627, where they were reduced to the necessity of subsisting on alms and charitable bequests, and were regarded in fact as beggars.—See *Hist. of the Mahom. Empire*, p. 159.

hedge of royal myrtle about fifteen feet high," and "a row of cypresses of prodigious height and bulk," with the "little recess behind" them, where the fatal assignation was said to have taken place, are mentioned as the only things yet existing that claim attention. Mr. Jacob, however, speaks of the interior as still exhibiting traces of its former splendour. "The floors of the rooms," he says, "are of marble, and have streams of the clearest water running through them. The garden adjoining is enriched with orange, lemon, and cypress-trees, and abounds in crystal fountains, transparent pools, and shady groves. Of late years, it has been inhabited by a nobleman, who has added some modern comforts to the ancient luxuries; and though he no longer resides there, it is much frequented by the inhabitants of the city, who repair to it with their provisions, and hold their convivial meetings in halls which rival in coolness and beauty the most voluptuous palaces of Asia."

"The *alameda* along the banks of the Xenil," Swinburne says, "is a very pleasant promenade; but the river has seldom water enough to enliven the prospect with a reflected landscape. The hill rises boldly to back the avenue, with orange-groves, cypress-alleys, and clusters of houses grouped upon the waving lines of its sides and summit. This and another drive beyond the river, are the chief places of resort; and the beauty of Granada is no where more striking than from these points of view. The environs are charming even now" (December); "and every body tells us, that, in summer, Granada is a delicious abode, never too cold or too hot, refreshed by numberless streams, and perfumed by all the sweets wafted by the breeze from the gardens that lie scattered over the declivities of the neighbouring hills. Nothing can be

more agreeable, in the mild, sunshiny afternoons, which we enjoy here, though at Christmas, than the walks along the heights of the Alhamra. There is always a great concourse of people sitting on the grass, basking in the sun, and diverting themselves, as if it were a fair. Venders of cakes, toys, and liquors, call their wares through the crowd. The women come to shew themselves in their holiday finery, dressed out in black silk petticoats and veils. In that habit, every woman has something uncommonly alluring. Here, indeed, the sex is really handsome in any dress: their complexions are fairer, their skins clearer, and their cheeks glow with a brighter tinge, than any faces we have met with in our journey down the coast. The surprising purity of its air must greatly contribute towards the freshness of their looks. In many houses, a current of water passes in an uncovered channel through bed-chambers, where people sleep, winter and summer, without its having the least bad effect upon their health. Fruit and butcher's meat remain in the Alhamra an unusual length of time, without taint or putrefaction.

"Taking a stroll behind the Alhamra, we passed below the *Puerta de los siete Suelos*, which was formerly the great entrance. This gate has been long blocked up, and the seven stories of vaults, from which it derived its name, have been filled with rubbish. A little further on, the wall turns to the north-east, where the towers are very high. Part of the hill, which is a strong cemented gravel, has been cut through, to make a dry ditch before them. A single arch crosses it, and conveys into the palace a copious supply of water. The path down this solitary, gloomy hollow, is rugged and broken by the waste waters. About the middle is a very low postern,

through which the court passed, when it chose to retire to the spring palace, which stands on a hill to the right. Nearer the Dauro, the water has burst all its conduits, and broken the gravel bank into a tremendous precipice. Here we descended into the charming vale of the Dauro, where we remarked the remnants of a Moorish bridge and tower, that appear to have supported a gallery of communication between the Alhamra and the Albaycin. The view from the little green bank near the river, though a confined one, is unspeakably beautiful. At the bottom, where the cathedral and other steeples rise in a groupe, in the narrow reach, the little stream winds its way into the heart of the city. To the south, the verdant slopes are crowned with the turrets of the Alhamra, the hanging woods and gardens of the Generaliffe, and the banks of the *Sierra del Sol.* On the north are the Albaycin, innumerable gardens, orchards, and caverns full of inhabitants. We found our mules waiting for us here, and proceeded up the river; a very pleasant ride, between villas and convents, romantically situated, mills and waterfalls, gardens and plantations of fruit-trees, and thickets of filberts. We turned off to the southward by the ruins of a small aqueduct, and came back over the mountain, on the top of which is a long ridge of stones, said to be the remains of the ancient *Illiberia.* It has more the appearance of a park wall, or a line of circumvallation. On the point that overlooks the Alhamra, stood formerly the Fort of the Sun, or of St. Helena, under which ran three canals cut in the rock, one above the other, which serve to convey water to the city, from the mountain springs and the river. Some large reservoirs, of Moorish (or perhaps more ancient) origin, still subsist below in perfect preservation."

Granada, under the Moors, carried on an extensive trade, and was famous for its different manufactures. They are said to have been in a flourishing state down to the middle of the sixteenth century. The absurd and injurious restrictions enacted in the year 1672, led to their decay; and the want of political wisdom has been fatal alike to agriculture, to manufactures, and to commerce.* Mr. Swinburne states, that trade was very feebly carried on, without encouragement or protection, while the crops of the fertile *Vega* diminish annually, and the population gradually decreases. The swarm of lawyers who are attracted here by the royal court of chancery, absorbed all the little wealth of the place, and were the only class that lived in any degree of luxury or affluence. The people, in general, were reduced to a state of great poverty and depression. "As for morals," says Mr. Townsend, "they are much like the rest of Spain: the monks are exceedingly corrupt, and the women have no want of lovers, although there are said to be numbers who are

* At the beginning of the seventeenth century, the university of Toledo represented to Philip III. the various grievances by which the nation had been reduced both as to population and wealth. Among these are enumerated the heavy duties collected in Granada on raw silk, amounting at that time to sixteen reals, or 3*s.* 2¼*d.* per lb. In 1740, they amounted to nearly 17½ reals, when raw silk was selling at 42 reals; *i.e.* to more than 41 per cent. When Count Campomanes wrote, the rate was considerably higher per lb., but the proportion to the value was diminished: they then amounted to 4*s.* 3¼*d.* per lb. of 16 oz., whereas, before the conquest, the Moors paid no more than 8¾*d.* on 18 oz. There were, first, the *alcavala* and *cientos*, which, besides being levied on the raw material, followed the manufacturer and merchant in all subsequent transfers of the property; the *diezmos*, or ecclesiastical tithe; the *arbitrio*, a municipal rate; the *tartil*, paid to the magistrate who weighed the silk; *xelix*, paid to the auctioneer and registrar; and *torres de la costa*, a species of ship-money, levied under pretence of guarding the coast against the Algerines.—TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 71.

uncorrupted by the manners of the age." The Spanish manners prevail. Mass, business, or visits to the ladies, fill up the forenoon; after an early dinner, they take their *siesta;* in the evening, they repair to the *paseo* (public walk); and when the day closes, assemble at some *tertulia*, where a round game at cards forms the usual amusement.

It is not possible to contemplate the present depressed state of this once opulent city, especially with regard to its manufactures, without adverting to the expulsion of the Moors. To that grossly impolitic, as well as intolerant measure, more than to any other circumstance, may be ascribed the decline of the Spanish empire. As to their numbers, of a hundred thousand condemned by the Inquisition for apostatising from the Christian faith, four thousand are said to have suffered at the stake. Philip III., in 1609, banished to Africa, 140,000 out of the kingdom of Valencia, and in the three years following, 600,000 from Seville, Murcia, and Granada. "If to these," remarks Mr. Townsend, "we add the multitudes who perished by famine and by sword, we shall be inclined to state the loss to Spain, if not with Count Campomanes, at 400,000 families, yet, at least, at one million of its most active subjects. This loss, added to what the country had sustained by the previous expulsion of 800,000 Jews, with all their wealth, in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, was, under such a government as that of Spain, irreparable. The Moors are acknowledged by the best Spanish writers to have excelled in agriculture, particularly in watering their lands, in the cultivation of mulberry-trees, the sugar-cane, rice, and cotton, all introduced by them,—in their peculiar breed of horses, and in the manufacture of silk, of paper, and of gunpowder, first brought by

them into Europe." The plea of state necessity has been urged in defence of the measure; but it may reasonably be questioned whether any sense of danger influenced the Spanish Government in this determination; for what danger could arise from the Jews, who fell victims to the same spirit of intolerance? The Moorish power was broken, and their wealth could give no just ground of alarm. In fact, the reasons urged by the apologists for the measure, shew that the real ground of their expulsion was their pertinacious adherence to the creed of Islam, in spite of all the apostolic labours of Cardinal Ximenes, in burning their Korans and baptizing their children, and all the terrors of the infernal office. How closely some of the following grounds of complaint touched the worldly interests of the clergy, is, however, sufficiently evident. First, says Fonseca, speaking of the Moriscoes,* when conducted to church *by the alguazil*, and compelled to take the holy water, they treated it with every expression of contempt; and when the host was lifted up, would make a sign of defiance and indignity *under their cloaks.* Secondly, *they neither left legacies in their wills, nor did they give money to procure masses for the souls of their departed friends, unless when compelled to do so;* and then they came to the priest with half a real to purchase half a mass. Further, when they were *dragged to the confessionals*, they would not acknowledge themselves guilty either of mortal or even of venial sins. Fourthly, out of twenty children born to them, they carried one only to the baptismal font, and him they baptized twenty times, under twenty different names, and even lent this child from

* In his work entitled, *Justa Expulcion de los Moriscos.* See Townsend, vol. iii. p. 76.

one village to another. Once more, they *ill-treated* the images of the saints which they were *obliged to receive into their houses*, setting them in the most indecent places with their heads downwards, and other marks of sovereign contempt. Now it is remarkable, that, with the exception of the fourth charge, these Moriscoes were guilty of no worse offence against that which miscalled itself the Catholic faith, than, under similar circumstances, the followers of John Knox or Zwingle, or, in fact, any consistent Protestants, would have gloried in committing. In pouring contempt on holy water, the divine wafer, the idolatrous images, auricular confession, and the doctrine of purgatory, they acted in no one respect inconsistently with the faith and duty of a sincere Christian. Nay, it may be affirmed without hesitation, that the Mohammedan's was a purer creed, less at variance with the religion of the New Testament, even in its doctrines, than that of their persecutors. The honour of Christianity demands from us this explicit avowal.*

* " The means employed by the Spaniards to convert the Moors of Granada, may be judged of by a letter, which still remains, of the famous Aben Humeya, in which he conjures his subjects, his brethren, to persevere in their religion, and to wait for more happy days. We might imagine we hear St. Paul, or the fathers of the primitive church, exhorting the faithful, and supporting them under persecutions; so much do the paths of error resemble those of truth.

" ' The unhappy, the sorrowful Moslema, despoiled of the kingdom which belonged to him, as the only remaining branch of the race of kings, the defenders of the nation and the law, Moslema, who took pleasure in the labours of a sovereign, without losing sight of justice and religion, Aben Humeya, son of Thali, and descendant of the high, mighty, and faithful Muley Hacen, to the honourable and zealous Mussulmans his brethren of Granada, health and benediction.

" ' We weep and shed bitter tears at the disgrace and misfortunes which the faithful Mussulman, Ab Haini, has seen fall upon

Whatever plea of necessity may be urged in extenuation of the measure itself, the mode in which the expulsion was conducted, is totally indefensible. The Moors had only sixty days allowed them to dispose of their effects. Yet, on quitting the kingdom, they were not to carry out gold, silver, or precious stones, unless under the exorbitant duty of 50 *per cent*, nor even letters of exchange, but only merchandise purchased of native Spaniards. "By their expulsion," remarks Mr. Townsend, "houses went to ruin and decay, lands were left uncultivated, commerce was neglected, and manufactures felt the severest shock,—a shock such as some scarcely survived, while others were wholly lost. The sudden departure of this multitude left a vacuity which it was not easy to fill up;

you; and we rejoice to learn with what firmness you resist the importunate entreaties and cruel threats and persecutions of those who wish to make you renounce the truth,—wretched men that they are! If the voices of two or three of the Christian imams be a torment to us, what must you suffer, who are exposed to so great a number of their imams, who daily preach to, surround you, and even enter your houses! We know that the most severe among them are they who, with their profane mosque, are placed in a collected body in the midst of you. These are the persons who most defame our patience and courageous fidelity. We congratulate ourselves upon the means you employ to keep them at a distance, and especially to prevent their destructive poison from infecting the tender minds of your feeble children. Fear nothing. Arm yourselves with new strength; power will manifest itself to destroy this race of infidels, and we shall one day possess this power. He who, with a steady eye, watches over us and our works, is almighty. He will multiply his faithful and zealous servants, like the stars of heaven and the sands of the sea. In the midst of all the evils with which you are surrounded, you are happy, since you have before your eyes that splendid city and the flowery fields, which were the native country of our forefathers. May they enjoy peace, and receive the benediction of Heaven!"—PEYRON in BOURGOING, vol. iv. pp. 149—151. If this document be genuine, it must be admitted to be exceedingly striking. We could have wished that the translator had given us his authority.

more especially by a nation which, having, for the space of seven centuries, been trained to war, and inflamed only by military ardour, had learned, in that long interval, to look down with contempt upon all who were engaged in the mechanic arts, and more especially to despise those occupations in which their antagonists excelled." Every consideration, however, was sacrificed to the gratifying of the national antipathy, the propitiation of the priesthood, and the temporary wealth which the spoliation of the Moors poured into the coffers of the state.

At the time of the expulsion, some of the Moors, who were particularly skilled in the silk-manufactures, or in the art of irrigating lands, were suffered to remain; and a few more were fortunate enough to find powerful protectors. So late as the year 1726, the Inquisition, with the sanction of Government, seized upon 360 families accused of *secret Mohammedism*, and confiscated all their effects,—estimated at 12,000,000 of crowns; an immense sum, of which no account was rendered.* "The ancestors of these people," says Swinburne, "had at their baptism assumed the surnames of their godfathers, by which means they had the same appellations as many of the best families in Spain; a kind of relationship that was of great service to them in their misfortune, and probably saved their lives from the fury of the holy office. They

* When Mr. Townsend was at Granada in 1787, the *Quemadero*, or place of burning, appeared to be neglected and going to decay. Yet, not more than eight years before, two Jews and a Turk had been burned there! The archbishop half jocularly assured the English Traveller, a Protestant clergyman, that though the inquisitors of the present day were become more gentle than their fathers, and seldom regaled themselves with human flesh, they had not yet forgotten the taste of blood.—See TOWNSEND, vol. iii. p. 83.

were dispersed into different parts of Spain, where, it is said, that with so much experience and skill in commerce, they soon grew rich again, and no doubt acquired wisdom enough to secure their second acquisitions better than their first. They were the principal merchants and monied men of Granada. Their custom was, to buy up for ready money all the silk made in the Vega, and sometimes to advance the value of it to the landholders before the season. This raw silk they distributed to the manufacturers in the city, whom they supplied with cash for their present maintenance, and were repaid by degrees in wrought silks. All these artificers thrived under their protection, and provided a comfortable subsistence for themselves and their families. The proprietors of land felt the sweets of a ready sale for their commodities; and the annual produce of silk in this province, before the year 1726, seldom fell short of 2,600,000lbs., whereas now (1776) it does not exceed 100,000. The sea-coast of Granada, from Marbella to Motril, formerly afforded large quantities of sugar, which was an article of commerce to Madrid till within these thirty years. What is now produced, is consumed in the neighbourhood in sweetmeats. From the heavy duties laid on this branch of trade, it is almost lost, there being now only three mills at work, in a declining state. At Motril, and at Toros near Velez, sugar-canes have been produced nine feet high, and of a proportionate thickness. The first plants are said to have been imported from Sicily, and afterwards carried to the West Indies; and the quality and grain of the Spanish sugar are affirmed to be equal to any imported from the colonies.

"A village in the mountains, up the Dauro, is to this day almost wholly composed of the descendants of

Moors; but it is not possible to know whether they have retained any attachment to the customs and religion of their ancestors, or whether they are as good Christians in heart as in appearance. You may easily distinguish them from the Castilians who were transplanted thither, by their round, plump faces, small, bright eyes, little nose, and projecting under-jaw. In their deportment, they are extremely humble and smooth-tongued, but so tenacious of their ready money, that it is with difficulty they can prevail upon themselves to part with the rents and dues which they cannot well avoid paying. These people, and the progeny of the Mosarabic Christians who inhabited the country before the conquest, are esteemed a much better race of men, both as to morals and industry, than the descendants of those vagabonds of Castile who constitute the major part of the present inhabitants."

"Even to the present day," says Mr. Townsend, "both Mohammedans and Jews are thought to be numerous in Spain; the former among the mountains, the latter in all great cities. Their principal disguise is, more than common zeal in external conformity to all the precepts of the church; and the most apparently bigoted, not only of the clergy, but of the inquisitors themselves, are by some persons suspected to be Jews."* The proportion of *hidalgos* in the kingdom of Granada is not considerable, amounting, according to Mr. Townsend's information, to only 1,979 nobles

* Swinburne, vol. i. pp. 262—6. Townsend, vol. iii. p. 84. The Rev. Jos. Wolf, a Christian Jew, was assured by the Jewish rabbies of Gibraltar, that the Jews in Portugal remain faithful to their religion, but the Jews in Spain have entirely forgotten that they are Jews. "I asked them," says Mr. Wolf, "whether the account I heard at Rome, from the Secretary of the Inquisition,

out of 652,990 inhabitants, or 1 in 325; whereas, in Leon, they form nearly a fifth, and in Asturias, nearly a third of the population.

We must not forget, however, that we have but just entered on the Spanish Mauritania, and have to pursue the routes of the three English travellers into the kingdoms of Seville and Cordova. The route to Cadiz, which we are now to follow, will lead us

FROM GRANADA TO MALAGA.

THE direct route is by way of Alhama, which was taken by Mr. Townsend and Mr. Jacob in coming to Granada. The road, after leaving the fertile Vega, lies for several leagues over almost barren mountains, to Almaha (or La Mala), a town containing about 2,000 inhabitants, where there is a royal salt-manufactory, which supplies the surrounding country. The salt spring rises on the side of a small river, and its contents are spread in pools about nine inches deep. As the process of evaporation is slow, the crystals formed are of a large size. The surplus of the spring runs into the river, which, from the saline taste it thus acquires, is named El Saladillo. From this place, it is a distance of four hours to Alhama, the road being a gradual ascent over rich corn-fields, unadorned with trees. This city, which was a place of considerable importance in the days of the Cid, and in the later wars with the Moors, is very remarkably situated, having a precipice on three sides, of at least

were true, that there is a street at Madrid where they are all Jews. They replied, Yes. A rich Portuguese Jew, called Cohen, told me, that there are Jews in Portugal who are bishops and priests, and in secret observe the Jewish religion."—WOLF'S *Missionary Journal*, p. 83.

200 feet in elevation, at the bottom of which a river pours down with great velocity through a fissure in the solid rock.* "It is beautiful," says Mr. Townsend, "to see and hear numerous cascades, assuming various forms, all foaming among the rocks, and, when they have spent their force, gliding almost imperceptibly along in one continued stream. Thus situated, the city is accessible only from the west, where a castle, formerly reputed strong, but now going to decay, commands the entrance." Alhama contains one large church, "most extravagantly decorated with tasteless ornaments," three convents, and about 1,500 families. It has no kind of manufactures, but is visited by invalids from all parts of Spain, not only on account of the remarkable purity of its air, but for some medicinal springs of great celebrity. The waters are sulphureous. One of the springs, which fills a marble bath, is of the temperature of 104° Fahr.; it is tempered by another spring, close to it, of cold water, resembling in taste, Mr. Jacob says, that of Harrowgate. "When the Moors possessed this place, the fame of the baths was so great among the surrounding Christians, that a revenue of 500,000 ducats is said to have been raised by giving them permission to make use of them." The people here appear more robust than in the valleys, and some of them, this Traveller says, have complexions almost ruddy. The dreadful epidemic which occasionally prevails in the country near the coast, never crosses the mountains, or reaches the elevation of this town. The agriculture of Alhama is also totally different from that of Velez or Malaga. Instead of vineyards,

* The upper stratum of these rocks is pudding-stone superposed on sand-stone; and near the water's edge is a stratum of shingle.

olive-grounds, and orchards, nothing is to be seen but extensive corn-lands. The soil is strong, formed, apparently, by the decomposition of the neighbouring mountains.* "The cultivators in these parts are a richer body of men than those in the fruitful valleys on the other side of the mountain. Grain here produces a more uniform crop, than fruit does in the valleys, the excessive produce of which in some years, and the great failure in others, create in the people a disposition similar to that of our West India proprietors, who have been said to regulate their expenditure on a scale commensurate with their most favourable years. At Alhama, the farmers have generally good crops and certain markets, and therefore live in a state of ease, and have become affluent. Many of the fields are so remote from the habitations of man,† that, during the harvest, the proprietors and their labourers erect tents, under which they live till the corn is cut, threshed, and carried home, when they return to the town: here they reside till the seed-time, and then they once again live under tents, till the labour of sowing be finished. The corn-farms are divided into portions not varying much in size; and at the corner of each portion, threshing-floors are constructed, which carry us back to the ancient husbandry of Arabia as practised by the patriarchs. The Arabs carried it to Africa, and their descendants introduced it into Andalusia. The corn, indeed, is here trodden out by mares instead of oxen; but the mode of doing it, the

* The rock, Mr. Jacob says, is limestone. Mr. Townsend describes the *sierras* as "mostly gypseous, including strata of crystallised selenite." Wolves abound in this elevated region; for which reason the shepherds keep watch, with large dogs, over their flocks by night.

† Between Alhama and La Mala, one very small village is the only one that occurs on the road, in the space of twenty miles.

living in tents, and the storing the grain in caves, are all evidently Arabian customs." * The river which nearly surrounds the city, turns in succession eight mills for grinding corn.

The road, after leaving the open corn country in the midst of which Alhama is situated, ascends a ridge of mountains, the declivities of which are clothed with the cork-tree and the ilex. Thousands of pigs of a peculiar breed, perfectly black, fatten in these woods, during the season, on the acorns. To the right, the *Sierra de Alhama* is seen with its lofty summit covered, in winter, with snow; although its elevation is far below that of the *Sierra Nevada* of Granada, which may be seen from the highest point of this range. A lonely *venta*, on the summit of a second and lower ridge, is all that occurs between Alhama and La Venuela, a distance of four posts, or upwards of eight leagues. The ascent from La Venuela to the *Puerta* (or opening) at the highest point, occupied nine hours. The country is rugged in the extreme, arid, and uncultivated; and the steep track, bordering frequently on precipices, is such as only mules or Spanish horses could travel with safety. The scenery, which is sufficiently wild and terrific, is rendered still more so by the monumental crosses which are occasionally seen, denoting the place where some traveller was murdered by the smugglers or banditti who take refuge in these mountains. At length, the traveller descends towards the delightful *playa*, or maritime plain, and, an hour beyond La Venuela, reaches Velez Malaga. This city, at the time of Mr. Jacob's visit, in 1810, exhibited a most deplorable appearance of desolation, the result of the dreadful epidemic which,

* Jacob, p. 250.

six years before, committed such ravages in all the towns along this coast. In Malaga itself, out of a population of 75,000, the deaths amounted to 21,637. In Velez, they amounted to 7,000 out of 16,000. And in all the towns between Gibraltar and Malaga, the pestilence swept away from one quarter to one-third of the inhabitants. The situation of Velez is most delightful, in the midst of a beautiful and fertile country, where "all nature seems to wear a smile." The city occupies the declivity of the mountain, and is commanded by a castle, now in ruins. It contains two parish-churches and six convents, and carries on a considerable trade in the rich produce of the soil. Mr. Townsend speaks in terms of poetical rapture of the *alameda*,* where the inhabitants assemble every evening to enjoy the "cool and refreshing shade, and where, through the whole year, the nightingale sings, and lemon-trees diffuse their fragrance." "Here," he says, "the peasants at every step call for some blessing upon all who pass; their manner is soft, their salutation peculiar—*Vayausted con la Virgen*, May you be under the protection of the Virgin." Mr. Jacob speaks of Velez in similar terms. The vineyards on the sides of the mountain, the verdure of its gardens, the shady groves on the banks of the river, the lofty elms on the *paseo* (or *alameda*), the profusion of fruits, and the transparent streams in the valley, render it, he says, one of the most enchanting spots in Andalusia. The views around the city derive additional interest from several Moorish towns, seated

* This word is derived from *alamo* (*ulmus*), the name given in Spain both to the elm and the poplar, with which these promenades are most frequently planted. The white and black poplar are distinguished as the *alamo blanco* and *alamo negro*; and the aspen is called *alamo temblon*.

on the narrow summits of mountains, and seeming to bid defiance to an enemy. "Among these are the towns of Benamocarra, Alcaucen, and Albasyda, the names and position of which carry back the mind to those remote periods when the conquering Catholics spread devastation through the valleys, and the luxurious but not totally enervated Moors, retiring to these fastnesses, renounced their luxuries, and carried on the most inveterate warfare against their invaders." On approaching Velez from Malaga, innumerable pointed hills are seen, all rich and cultivated to their very summits with the vine, and affording a constant variety of view. The rock in general is schist, with some limestone, and one hill of gypsum. The level country is covered with luxuriant crops of corn. The ride to Malaga, a distance of five leagues, lies for the most part over a succession of *playas*, triangular plains, from one to two miles in extent, open to the sea, and extending to the foot of the hills, the washings of which have formed the rich alluvial soil. From the latter end of May, however, or the beginning of June, when the harvest is carried in, till October or November, these plains are reduced, by the excessive heats, to mere sands. The chasms between the hills are filled with the almond, plum, orange, lemon, and apricot trees. Some cotton and sugar plantations are found at *Torre del Mar*.

MALAGA.

"LIKE all Spanish towns," says Mr. Jacob, "Malaga is a most beautiful object at a distance, but will not bear a near inspection. The *alameda* is the only part of the town which is handsome, and that is truly magnificent." At the end of it is a

beautiful marble fountain, said to have been presented to the Emperor Charles the Fifth by the Republic of Genoa; it consists of three basins, one above another, and gradually diminishing in size, supported by groupes of female figures. The city stands in the very corner of the plain, which is quite bare of wood, with the exception of a few plantations round the villas; and the naked, craggy mountains here overhang the shore, leaving scarcely room for the town. This situation renders Malaga insufferably hot during eight months of the year. On approaching it by sea, it is seen deeply embayed, and the high and rugged shores seem destitute of soil; but on a nearer view, the declivities appear clothed with vineyards. The deep ravine by the side of the town is dry in summer, but in winter affords a bed to a considerable stream. The streets of Malaga, like those of all other Moorish towns, are very narrow, many of them not more than eight feet wide, others not so wide; "all badly paved, and dirty to a proverb." The houses are high and large, built in the Asiatic fashion round a court, into which the windows look. There is only one square in the town, which is neither spacious nor handsome; and the churches and convents are so crowded among the houses, that whatever beauty they may possess, is concealed. The only edifice, however, which deserves the least attention, Mr. Townsend says, is the cathedral, begun in the year 1528 by Philip II.,* but still unfinished. "It is, indeed, two hundred years since it was so far brought to a conclusion as to be fitted for the performance of Divine service; but, notwithstanding new taxes have been granted for its comple-

* The united arms of Philip II. and Mary of England are still to be seen over the door.

tion, and have been collected for nearly seventy years, it remains with one single tower out of six contained in the original design.* The dimensions are 360 feet by 180, and 135 in height.† It is a noble pile; the architecture is a mixture of Roman and Gothic.‡ "The interior is finished with exquisite taste: it is an oblong spheroid, with a row of Corinthian pillars, around which is the nave; these pillars support a lofty roof of well-turned arches, with the sky painted in the compartments. The high altar and the pulpit are of flesh-coloured marble; and the choir is so singularly fine, that Palomino, the biographer of Spanish artists, calls it the eighth wonder of the world. It contains about fifty stalls, curiously carved in cedar and mahogany, and a considerable number of statues of saints, the work of Alonzo Cano, and of his pupil, Pedro de Mena. The paintings are far inferior to those in the cathedral of Seville: the best is by Cano, the Virgin in heaven with the infant Jesus and a groupe of angels. There are some few marble monuments, particularly one to the memory of a late bishop, Don Jose de Molina, who is celebrated for having expended in church plate and in ornamenting this edifice, the enormous sum of 20,000*l.* sterling. The annual revenue of the see amounts to 100,000 dollars, principally derived from a tithe on wine. There are two

* This would seem to be a favourite financial *ruse* in Spain. See the account of Barcelona, p. 83.

† According to Mr. Townsend. Mr. Jacob states the measurements at 400 feet by 260, and 140 feet in height from the floor to the arches. Laborde makes it 306 by 178, 123 feet in height to the roof, and the tower 267 feet in height.

‡ M. Peyron says: "The façade, which is mostly of blue and red marble, would be tolerably handsome, were it not dishonoured by a shabby bas-relief of white marble."

fine organs in this cathedral, which add much to its beauty. The pipes are not perpendicular, as in our churches, but project from the instrument, like a range of trumpets, over the top of the choir, diminishing gradually in length. The palace of the bishop forms one side of the small square in front of the cathedral; but the majestic height and grand dimensions of the latter, make this palace, which, in another situation, would appear a handsome building, look small and mean. The other churches and monasteries contain nothing worth describing."* The city contains six parishes, fifteen monasteries, ten nunneries, one *beaterio*, and nine hospitals. The population, in 1786, as stated by Mr. Townsend, was estimated at only 41,592. If this be correct, it must have rapidly increased during the ensuing five-and-twenty years, since a census taken in 1804, after the fatal epidemic had nearly ceased, made the survivors amount to 52,376. Of those who fell victims to the pestilence, 1,206 were military, 300 convicts, 81 monks, 76 nuns, 114 secular ecclesiastics, 17 physicians, and nearly 20,000 private individuals. Mr. Townsend mentions a singular fact. "Of those who arrive at maturity, and go out to labour, here are found six women to one man."

Malaga is a very ancient city; and the opinion which assigns to it a Phenician origin, is in some measure countenanced by its name, written Malacha by Ptolemy and Pliny, and supposed to be derived from the Hebrew *Malach*, salt, on account of the great quantities of salt fish anciently sold there.† Its bishop is suffragan to Granada. The Moors retained

* Jacob, p. 227.

† Strabo, M. Peyron says, speaks of it as a Carthaginian colony, famous for its salted provisions.

possession of this place till the year 1487, when it was reduced by famine to surrender to Ferdinand V. In point of commercial importance, Malaga, Mr. Jacob says, may be considered as the third port in Spain, ranking immediately after Cadiz and Barcelona, but with this singular difference, that here the exports always exceed the imports; whereas at Cadiz, Barcelona, Corunna, St. Andero, and even Alicant, the imports from America always exceeded the exports.* The port, since the construction of an additional mole, is one of the best artificial harbours in the world; it is not large, but there is sufficient depth of water for a ship of the line to lie close to the pier; it is well sheltered, and is accessible with every wind.† In 1810, its commerce was flourishing, the peace with England having led to the export of nearly three times the quantity of wine and fruit that had been shipped any preceding year. Besides these articles, which are the foundation of its trade, a few manufactured commodities were exported to the colonies and other parts of Spain; these were brought chiefly from Granada, consisting of linen, sail-cloth, satins, velvets, taffetas, ribbons, and silk stockings. There are also manufactories of paper, leather, soap, hats, tapes, and woollens, but all on a small scale. The fishermen form a numerous body. Foreigners, according to Laborde, are also numerous. This Traveller speaks in terms of high

* Laborde states the imports at 281,250*l.* sterling, and the exports at 515,625*l.*, but without mentioning any year. We suspect that his information on this point comes down no later than 1789.

† Swinburne states, that the sea has lost ground here, owing to the sand brought down from the mountains by the Guadalmedina, which annually accumulates; and Laborde says, that the sea has retired upwards of forty fathoms, and is still retiring, from the same cause; "so that there is room to fear that Malaga may in time lose its harbour."

commendation of the agreeable manners of the people. The men, he says, are active, industrious, and polite; the women, graceful, lively, and bewitching,—in fact the most agreeable in all Spain.

An ancient Moorish castle, in good preservation, called *Gibralfaro*, stands on the sharp point of a rock commanding the city. "From many inscriptions found here, it is evident that this fortress was the site of a Roman temple and castle;* and the bricks in some parts of the foundation are manifestly the work of that people; but the whole superstructure is purely Arabian. The entrances are protected by a contrivance generally found in the Moorish fortresses: over each door and window, a kind of chimney is constructed, the bottom of which is level with the upper part of the entrance, and the top terminates at the parapet. Through these chimneys, the besieged could shoot their arrows on the heads of their assailants, and be themselves secure from attack. The modern art of fortification might render this castle impregnable." There is another Moorish building, which is externally in good preservation; it was formerly the *darsena*, or dock, in which the Moorish galleys were laid up; it is now converted into store-houses. An Arabian palace, called the *Alcaçaba*, once stood near the shore, but has been partly destroyed to make room for the new custom-house, a handsome structure, close to the water, erected in 1789. In digging the foundations, some ancient remains are said to have been found here, among which was a fine female statue in white marble.

"A very fine road," according to Laborde, "runs

* Laborde says, a magnificent pharos, which seems to receive colour from the name, *Gebel al faro*. Fragments of marble columns, he says, have been found on this eminence.

for eight leagues from Malaga to Antequera. We find no village all the way. The road lies over a succession of hills covered with vineyards, which yield the excellent Malaga wine known all over the world. A passage cut through a rock, leads to a chain of mountains, on the summit of which we pass the *Puerta de Escaberuzala.* The country here wears a very singular appearance. Rocks of every shape and figure, intersected and ranged in various ways, present a picturesque resemblance to a collection of churches, towers, and other buildings. This place is called the Torcal." Mr. Jacob has given a similar account of this singular geological phantasmagoria, which is seen on the left hand, on the road between Antequera and Alora. "It is situated on the summit of a high mountain, and has the appearance of a considerable city in ruins, with regular streets, large churches, and vast public buildings. It is, however, nothing more than an assemblage of white marble rocks, which is so extensive, that whoever enters it without a knowledge of the paths, is in danger of being lost in a labyrinth from which he could not extricate himself without great difficulty." A very fine, variegated marble is said to be found here. A gentle descent of a mile and a half conducts the traveller to Antequera, where the road to Cadiz joins the route taken by Mr. Swinburne in travelling from Granada to Malaga, and by Mr. Jacob on his return to Gibraltar.

FROM GRANADA TO SAN ROQUE.

A road passable for wheel carriages, leads over the *Vega* to Santa Fé, a city built by Ferdinand during the siege of Granada, at the distance of two leagues from that city. This place is remarkably subject to

earthquakes, and had suffered very severely from them in the two years preceding Mr. Jacob's visit. That of 1809 extended its effects across the whole *Vega* in a tract of about a league in breadth, and was felt, though very slightly, and but for a few minutes, at the city of Granada. At Santa Fé, it lasted twelve hours, and left marks of its ravages on most of the buildings. "One of the churches," says this Traveller, describing the appearance which it then presented, "is completely divided in the centre, and the tower is a heap of ruins. A convent which has been much injured, exhibits a curious spectacle; one half is thrown down, and the cells of the monks in the other half are laid completely open. Several houses of private individuals have suffered severely; but so much are the people accustomed to these occurrences, that many of their habitations are already repaired, and workmen were busily employed in rendering the others habitable."

The mountains which surround the plain of Granada, are the termination of the great cordillera, the loftiest points of which are the summits of the *Sierra Nevada*, near the city of Granada. The height of the Mula Hacen is stated by Mr. Jacob to be 12,762 feet above the level of the sea; that of the Picacho de Veleta 12,459 feet; but, to the eye, the whole chain appears of nearly equal elevation.* The line of perpetual snow commences at 9,915 feet. From the *Sierra Nevada*, the mountains gradually decline in height towards the south, till, at the *Sierra de Gador*, near Almeria, they again rise to the elevation of 7,800 feet. Here is situated the celebrated rock of Filabres, 2,000 feet in height, and four miles in cir-

* Don Clemente Rosas makes them only 1,824 and 1,781 fathoms. See p. 11

cumference, consisting of one block of solid white marble.* The intermediate mountains between the

* This singular mountain is about three leagues from Almeria, but it takes ten hours to reach it, on account of the necessity of turning so many hills. From its summit, on the side towards the village of Machael, a great part of the kingdom of Granada may be discovered, resembling in its appearance the waves of the sea in a storm. On the other side, the mountain is cut almost perpendicularly, and, from its prodigious elevation, affords an awful prospect. The *Sierra de Gador* is another immense mass of marble, of which excellent lime is made: it dissolves entirely with acids, without leaving the least residue of clay. We shall here throw together a few particulars respecting the southern coast eastward of Malaga. To the east of Velez is the little port of Herradura, where a fleet of galleys was lost in 1562, being driven on shore by the wind; it is, therefore, very unsafe. Further eastward is Motril, another small port, near which are four large sugar-mills (*ingenios*), sugar having been made on this part of the coast "from time immemorial." "From Motril to Almeria, you range along the mountains, many of which are of marble to the very summit. The strand is level and sandy, with very little earth, except near Almeria. This ancient city was conquered from the Moors in 1147, by Alfonso, styled the emperor, assisted by Garcias, King of Navarre, Raymond, Count of Barcelona, and a fleet of Genoese. About half way towards Cape de Gata, there is a large plain so full of garnets, that a ship might be loaded with them; they are likewise to be found in a gulley formed by the waves at the foot of a hill. Cape de Gata is a huge promontory, consisting of an enormous rock, eight leagues in circuit, and five broad. The first object that strikes the eye is a rock 200 feet high, about fifty paces from the sea, all crystalised in large stones that will take a good polish. Precious stones are said to be found in the mountain of Bujo, in a cavern with an entrance twenty feet high, open to the waves. On the outside, a large white patch serves as a landmark to mariners, and is thence called *Vela Blanca*. This is what is properly called Cape de Gata. Near the *Torre de las Guardas* there is a bed of jasper of a white ground, veined with red; and further on, near the *Torre de Neste*, a low rock is seen, almost covered with a stratum of white cornelian. They gather a black sand not far from the *Torre de San Josef*, produced from the constant demolition of the rock, which is sold to throw over writing. In the centre of this promontory, there are four hills near to each other, called the Sacristan, the Two Friars, the Captain, and the White Mountain. The other side of the promontory, after passing these four hills, is called *El Puerto*

Sierra Nevada and the *Sierra de Gador*, are named the Alpuxarras, which extend about seventeen leagues in length from Velez Malaga to Almeria, and eleven in breadth. From their summits, the coast of Barbary and the cities of Tangier and Ceuta may be descried. These mountains, in which the wretched remains of the Moors took refuge, are covered with villages and a few well-peopled towns. The mountaineers are said to retain the active and industrious spirit of their ancestors. They cultivate the vine and almost every kind of fruit tree, the produce of which they bring to Velez or to other parts of the coast.

"The secondary mountains," says Mr. Jacob, "are of various kinds. Some are naked, and others appear of red earth, covered with herbs, trees, shrubs, and plants. One very lofty hill is composed of veined marble from top to bottom; another has its base covered with *esparto*, but, to a prodigious height above, is a naked rock. All these abound with mines of silver, copper, and lead, some of which were formerly worked by the Moors. From the top of the *Sierra Nevada* almost to the city, there is one mass or column of perpendicular rock, of a reddish-brown colour, without any perpendicular or oblique streaks. In many parts, the melting of the snow has washed the rock into the valleys, where, by decomposition, it has formed a luxuriant and productive soil. Two leagues from the city, on a level with the river Xenil,

de la Plata, where the Moorish corsairs lie lurking for Spanish vessels. There is a rock near this *Puerto*, called *El Monte de las Guardas*, where they find amethysts, but still more in a stratum of quartz of difficult access."—DILLON'S *Travels through Spain*, 4to. 1782, pp. 333—40.

a quarry of serpentine is worked, whence the pillars that adorn some parts of the cathedral have been taken. It is of a green colour, beautifully veined, and receives a very high polish. There are also numerous quarries of marble of various kinds, which are raised at little expense, and sold very cheap. Alabaster, equal in brilliancy and transparency to the finest white oriental cornelians, is likewise to be met with; but it is soft, and the weakest acids will dissolve it. They are called *piedras de aguas*, or petrifactions, but are probably stalactites. They are beautifully veined, and some of them are of a straw colour, with undulations in them of exquisite beauty, and are evidently the substance of which the pulpits in the cathedral at Malaga are formed. One of the most remarkable circumstances in these mountains is, the immense masses of bones of men and other animals which have been discovered on their summits, none of which, however, equal those found at Concud, where a hill is entirely formed of them. After digging through a stratum of limestone, about five or six feet in depth, the bones are found under it, in a bed of red earth of similar thickness. Don Isidore de Antillon, who relates his observations made in 1806, says, that having dug at several parts of the hill remote from each other, he found, as soon as the pickaxe had penetrated through the stone, the bones of the arm and hand, and human teeth, with manifest remains of the medullary substance. Neither skeletons nor skulls were discovered; but the teeth of various animals were mixed with those of men. They were soft and slimy, but hardened on being exposed to the sun."

The copious streams formed by the melted snow of the *Sierra Nevada* in summer, contribute very mate-

rially to the productive powers of the soil of the Vega.* These streams are conveyed along the upper side of each field by means of embankments, in which sluices are cut, that convey the water into small trenches, so as to flood the whole field with ease in the hottest season. In farms where the proprietors have the right of water, very little attention beyond irrigation is paid to the soil. The average produce on these lands is as high as fifty bushels of wheat per acre. Considerable quantities of rice are cultivated on the lower lands subject to inundation, and sometimes, in these situations, hemp and flax are raised before the rice is sown. Though the corn-lands do not require manure, this important article is carefully collected for the gardens, melon-grounds, and extensive mulberry-plantations which are scattered over the plain. The wine produced in the immediate vicinity of the city, Mr. Jacob says, is very bad, and acquires a disagreeable taste from the sheep-skins with tarred seams, in which it is brought from the vineyards. But a few leagues off, excellent wine is produced, equal to any Burgundy. In this land of the cork-tree, however, it is deemed requisite to import English corks as well as English bottles, so ill is the trifling operation of cutting them here performed.

Near Santa Fé, is a valuable estate called Soto de Roma, about five miles in length by two in breadth, which originally belonged to the crown, and was kept up as a hunting seat by the Emperor Charles the Fifth. When Mr. Swinburne visited Spain, it had been granted by the king for life to Lieutenant-general

* The Dauro, which runs through Granada, is a mere mountain-torrent: it joins the Xenil near the city, and their united streams fall into the Guadalquiver.

Richard Wall, the ex-prime-minister of Spain, who laid out the grounds and cultivated the land in the English manner. "It was quite in ruins," says this Traveller, "when he came to live here. He has rebuilt part of it, cleaned it, and fitted up the house with elegant English furniture, in the style of one of our villas. The waters of four rivers meet here, and cause frequent inundations in winter. In summer, the air is very unwholesome, as the woods and ditches at that season abound with vermin and reptiles of all sorts. The forest round it contains about four thousand acres, and was reserved to the crown by Ferdinand the Catholic, when he divided the conquered country among his followers. Elm, poplar, and some oak are the kinds of trees that grow here in any quantity; they are cut down for repairs of the estate, and for the service of the royal arsenals. Mr. Wall has drained most of the woods, opened pleasant drives throughout, filled up the naked spots with plantations of useful timber trees, and thinned the old quarters with great judgement. This is almost the only place in Spain where pheasants thrive and multiply.* In the beginning of spring, at the end of autumn, and during the winter months, this is a very agreeable rural habitation. Mr. Wall resides at the *Soto* from October to May; he then goes to Aranjuez, to attend the court for a month, after which he comes for the summer to the city of Granada. The king has given up to him all the revenues arising from these demesnes, and they are laid out in improving and beautifying the place, which Mr. Wall seems perfectly to understand. He has every thing within himself. His own flocks, herds, and poultry supply his table; the

* This bird was introduced into Spain by the Emperor Charles V.

woods furnish it with game; the rivers with fish; and the kitchen garden with every kind of vegetable. He is now in his eighty-third year, of a spare, neat make, active and fond of exercise, of a fair complexion and engaging countenance. He rises betimes, walks several hours a day, superintends his workmen; and, though he sees but little company, takes the greatest care to have every thing that is excellent in its kind served up at his table, where his behaviour is as easy and cheerful as if he were only thirty years of age; not the smallest grain of ministerial reserve or affectation. He is free and communicative in his conversation, which he renders exceedingly agreeable by introducing a variety of lively anecdotes of events and persons, with which so long a life of public employment has furnished him in great abundance. He is fond of talking, and acquits himself so well of the task, that the most loquacious must listen with patience and pleasure to his discourse, always heightened by mirth and good humour. Courts and ministers he treats with the ridicule which they, for the most part, deserve. A man who has passed so many years behind the curtain, must often reflect with contempt on the futile, absurd springs that set in motion the grand political machine. It was with the greatest regret that we took leave of this most amiable statesman."

On the death of Mr. Wall, in 1778, the property reverted to the crown, and was granted, together with some other rich and extensive lands in this vicinity, to the notorious Godoy, Prince of the Peace. After his disgrace and flight, the game, which had been carefully preserved, was somewhat thinned by the unlicensed sportsmen of the neighbouring towns.

The road from Santa Fé continues over the *Vega* to a lonely *venta* on the bank of the Saladillo, which,

even at this distance from the springs of Almaha, retains its saltness. "We continued our route across the plain," continues Mr. Jacob, "which appeared so enclosed by lofty and almost perpendicular mountains, that we could scarcely conjecture by what avenue we were to get out of the valley. By following the course of the Xenil, however, we at last found an opening, but through a chasm so extremely narrow, that it hardly admitted of more than a passage for the stream. The mountains rise on both sides in terrific forms and tremendous heights throughout this pass, which, when the Moors possessed the plain of Granada, was considered as the most important of its defences. In the wider part of this fissure, the town of Loxa is situated, its streets rising one above the other on the side of the mountain; and still higher is a Moorish castle,* which gives the whole scene a most picturesque appearance. The town contains about 9,000 inhabitants, who are mostly occupied in agriculture; the principal produce is oil. The parish church is the worst religious building, and the most destitute of ornaments of any I had seen in Spain. We left Loxa as soon as it was light, and began to ascend the mountains, which are very steep and lofty. We continued ascending and descending till noon, sometimes above the clouds, sometimes below them, and frequently so completely enveloped by them, as to preclude the sight of objects at the distance of only a few yards. During these

* This castle, M. Peyron says, is now become the peaceful abode of a hermit. "The Moors did not foresee that most of their palaces and fortresses would one day serve as retreats to Christian cenobites: such, however, has been the fate of the edifices they have left. The castles of Murviedro, San Felipe, Granada, Loxa, &c. are inhabited by monks and hermits.' The spider weaving his toils in the despoiled hive!

changes of elevation, we experienced equal changes of climate, and felt every degree of temperature, from the biting frost of a winter's morning, to the warmth of a May-day noon. Though fifty miles from the *Sierra Nevada*, we felt that, when the wind from that quarter was not intercepted by the mountains, a very sensible alteration took place in the atmosphere, which varied in the different situations, from 46° to 68° Fahr. I reckoned the lowest part of our morning's journey to be about 1000 yards, and our highest about 2,500; for in no instance did we reach the snow, though it lay on the tops of some higher elevations near us. After travelling five hours, we came to a mountain presenting a height of about 600 yards, almost perpendicular, and apparently terminating in a single point; but, in passing round it, its appearance became somewhat like the pyramidal spires in the crowns of our ancient kings. On one of these points is a Moorish fortress, which, like the hill forts in India, must be unassailable, and can be reduced only by hunger. At the foot of this hill, we found the town of Chiuma, containing 7 or 8,000 inhabitants. The surrounding country consists chiefly of corn-land, intermixed with olive-grounds. There is very little water near it; in consequence of which, in some years, the fields are so unproductive, that the inhabitants, having no surplus commodities to send to more fruitful districts, in exchange for the first necessary of life, suffer severely from famine. From Chiuma, we descended into a plain, at the end of which we reached the river Guadalhorce, which winds round the mountains till it empties itself into the sea at Malaga. At this spot, it is merely a small though beautiful stream, and washes the foot of a lofty, perpendicular rock, of celebrity at the period when the Moors ruled Granada.

Mariana, the historian, tells a tragical story of two lovers, who fled from Granada, and being pursued by the Moors, precipitated themselves from this rock to avoid captivity.* An hour's ride from *La Peña de los Enamorados*, brought us through a fertile valley to Antequera. Like most other cities in this part of Spain, it is finely situated, surrounded with beautiful gardens and fertile fields, and adorned by the sublime mountains which rise in the back ground; but a nearer inspection creates the customary disgust. On the whole road from Loxa to Antequera, a distance of twenty-five miles, we did not meet a single traveller; and, excepting the town of Chiuma, did not see a single house." †

Antequera (Anticaria) is a very ancient city, and is still of considerable extent; and numerous Roman and Moorish edifices give it an appearance of grandeur.‡ The date of its foundation is unknown; but it is noticed in the Itinerary of Antoninus, and from inscriptions which have been preserved, it is ascertained to have been a *municipium* as early as A.D. 77. The population in 1810, was supposed to amount to 8,000 families, which, on the common calculation, would give 40,000 inhabitants. Eighty years before the conquest of Granada, this city was taken by Juan II. of Castile; and in the Moorish castle, the arms captured by the Christians are still preserved. "It appears from these remains," says Mr. Jacob, "that the Moors used defensive armour of great weight, and

* The tradition is, that the lovers were a handsome, young French knight and the daughter of the Moorish sovereign.

† Jacob, pp. 307—10.

‡ Mr. Swinburne dismisses it with the simple remark, that it is "a large, straggling town at the extremity of the plain, situated on several hillocks in a nook of the mountains."

employed short javelins, cross-bows, and oval shields, formed of two hides cemented together, so thick as to resist a musket-ball. The castle in which these warlike instruments are deposited, is in better preservation than any Moorish fortress I have seen; and the entrance, called the Giant's Arch, is the finest specimen of their architecture." Within its enclosure, is the church of Santa Maria, formerly a mosque, and which has undergone no other alteration than the introduction of a profusion of bad pictures, bad statues, and tasteless ornaments. The Franciscan convent contains some pillars of the most beautiful veined, flesh-coloured marble: they are twenty-eight in number, and support the arches of the cloister. In several of the churches are some good paintings in fresco by Antonio Mohedano, who flourished about A.D. 1600, and was highly esteemed both as an artist and a poet. Antequera has produced several eminent men; among others, Luis de Carvajal, the historian, and Pedro de Espinosa, one of the best Castilian poets of the sixteenth century; and the numerous Roman inscriptions in this city and its vicinity, have kindled a taste in particular for the study of antiquities. "There are few places in Europe," according to Mr. Jacob, "in which the antiquary, the botanist, or the geologist would find so much worthy of attention as at Antequera." Coins of various dates are frequently found here; and the number of ancient edifices in ruins is considerable. The rocks are covered with a lichen (*saxatillis tinctorius*), from which is obtained a purple dye. Among the other vegetable productions which are found here in great luxuriance, are the *anchusa* (alkanet); liquorice, here regarded as a weed; the caper-tree; jessamine; periwinkle; lavender; numerous species of heaths, which are converted into char-

coal for fuel; anise and cumin, of which the inhabitants make great use by infusing them in brandy; the cistus (*cistus ladaniferus*) or rock-rose, producing a gum which is eaten by the common people; the aloe; the *pita* or agave; the *esparto*; the *opuntia*; and various species of palm. The rocks surrounding the city, are all of limestone or marble. At the distance of about half a league, is a solid rock of most beautiful flesh-coloured marble, from which issue various springs, forming a rivulet that turns several mills, and waters the plains below. There are two springs near the city, which have long been celebrated. The water of one, about two leagues distant, is considered as a specific for the stone; it is said to act as a solvent, and to be also beneficial in strengthening the stomach. An ancient votive altar was discovered near this spring, which is called *Fuente de la Piedra*, inscribed "to the Divine Fountain."* The water is remarkably cold, and has no peculiar taste, except that of the saxifrage, which grows in abundance within the spring. About a mile and a half from the *Fuente de la Piedra*, is another copious spring, which fills with salt water a lake four miles in length, and two in breadth. The water is salter than sea-water, and royal salt-works have been formed on the side of the lake. No other salt is allowed to be sold in this district. The mountains in this neighbourhood present a rich and unexplored field to the mineralogist. The wine produced here is all of the sweet kind, "muddy and nauseous." Oil is exchanged with the more northern districts for wheat.

* FONTI DIVINO ARAM—L. POSTVMIVS STATVLIVS—EX VOTO D. D. D. (Bourgoing, vol. iv. p. 206.) Morales states, that the Romans built a small town near this spring for the reception of patients, and that when the water was sent to a distance, a notary, to guard against imposition, was employed to attest the day on which it was taken from the spring, and the vessel was sealed.

There are considerable baize-manufactories in the city, which supply the surrounding towns; and some linens, cloths, and hats are made for home consumption.

A fatiguing ride of seven hours over the mountains, brought Mr. Jacob to Alora, distant from Antequera four leagues.* To the left, on descending the mountain above the city, was seen the singular mountain *El Torcal*, which has already been referred to. In the course of between four and five hours, the rich vale of Alora opened on the Travellers, with the town seated on the steep declivity of the opposite mountain. In the valley, a charming stream is seen meandering through orange and lemon groves, and on a jutting eminence stands a monastery, in the midst of delightful gardens watered by crystal rivulets. Alora (Iluro) contains about 4,000 inhabitants. From several inscriptions found here, it is ascertained to have been a municipal town under the Romans. It now contributes to the commerce of Malaga, by supplying the productions of the plain and the surrounding mountains. On a conical hill, commanding the town, stands an ancient castle. It is very spacious; and the foundation and lower part of the walls, Mr. Jacob says, are of Roman brick, but the superstructure is evidently Moorish, as is proved by the horse-shoe form of the arch over the gate.† It has on two sides a precipice

* "In good roads," Mr. Jacob says, speaking of these mountainous districts, "it is possible to accomplish a league in an hour; but, in this country, half a league in an hour is deemed expeditious travelling."

† The crescent arch, one of the characteristic features of the Moorish architecture, is said to have been first adopted by the Arabs of Syria; and the edifices erected by them during the reign of the Ommiade dynasty, invariably displayed this sacred arch. "The khalifs of the house of Abbas, as if disliking an appendage characteristic of the family they had dethroned, introduced in their

of nearly 400 feet, which gives it much of the appearance of the hill forts in India. The next two leagues after leaving this town, employed five hours. "Many parts of the path were on the edge of a precipice, with the river from two to three hundred yards below on one side, and the towering *Sierra de Blanquilla*, with its perpendicular marble rocks, on the other. The hills are so steep, that, on the lower side of each olive-tree, a wall has been constructed, to prevent its slipping down the precipice." An opening in this mountain leads to another rich vale of a deep, clayey soil, overlooked by the town of Casarabonela. This place is very singularly situated "on the top of a hill, whence the descent to the valley is full 800 yards, and in some places almost perpendicular, so that it occupied two hours to ascend to the town by a winding road. It contains between 4 and 5,000 inhabitants. Some beautiful cascades pour down from the mountains, and turn several mills behind the town. The *sierra* rises in majestic grandeur, in some parts to nearly the perpendicular height of a mile, which gives a very impressive effect to the scene. A Moorish fortress in ruins overlooks the town. On leaving Casarabonela," continues Mr. Jacob, "we began immediately to ascend the highest and steepest mountains we had yet encountered. For a considerable part of the ascent, the mountain is composed of marble or limestone; but near the top we saw several veins of good coal, some of them three or four feet in thickness. This substance is used by some of the poorer classes for fuel. I remarked in one part of this mountain, a

buildings at Bagdadt, an arch resembling the section of an oval, taken below the transverse diameter; and the sovereigns of Granada adopted a similar arch in constructing the palace of the Alhamra."—*Hist. of the Mah. Empire in Spain*, p. 283.

stratum of schist, of a bluish-grey colour, but not very thick. We left the highest summit, called *Sierra de Junquera*, which was covered with snow, on our left hand, and travelled for four hours, ascending and descending along execrable roads. Except a convent of bare-footed Carmelites at half a league's distance on our left, which appeared surrounded with cultivated fields, good gardens, and vineyards, the country presented nothing but extensive woods of oaks and cork-trees, under which thousands of pigs were feeding on the acorns. We reached *El Burgo*, a town containing about 1,500 inhabitants, in five hours. We then ascended another mountain of prodigious height; and on the highest part that we passed, just reached the line of perpetual snow, which is about 10,000 feet above the level of the sea. On both sides, the still higher points rose majestically above our heads. From the top of this pass, we first saw the rich plain on which the city of Ronda stands; for, though on an elevation of 1,500 yards above the level of the sea, the higher mountains around it give it the appearance of a valley, richly adorned with corn-fields, fruit-trees, and transparent streams. Four of the highest peaks, which in a clear day are visible at Cadiz, retain the snow, which is preserved through the summer in caverns, and is sent, packed in chaff, for the supply of Cadiz, Seville, and Gibraltar. On descending into the plain, by tremendous roads, we got into a warmer climate, and were surrounded with trees of every variety of verdure. About a league from the city are situated the ruins of *Acinipo*, called Old Ronda. They are very extensive; and the vestiges of the wall which formerly surrounded the city, are easily traced. Within this wall is a pile, which was evidently a Roman amphitheatre, though there are only eight

rows of seats now entire. It must certainly have been much larger than that of Italica near Seville.* Another edifice may also be distinctly traced, supposed to have been a temple. It originally formed a square of 200 feet; and the interior was divided into apartments of a quadrangular form, about twenty-two feet square. The marble pavement of this temple was taken up in 1650, by an antiquary named Don Rodrigo de Ovalle, and removed to Ronda at the expense of the Cabildo. The aqueduct is entire for a considerable distance. The whole of these ruins occupies fifty acres of land, exclusive of those without the walls, which are also very extensive, though but thinly scattered. From inscriptions and coins discovered here, it appears to have been a municipal town of the Romans, and to have had a mint; for many of the coins have the name of the town between an ear of wheat and another of barley."

The city of Ronda (the ancient Arunda) contains three *paroquias*, or parish-churches, five convents with splendid churches, an ancient Moorish castle, and "abundance of Roman antiquities." The population is stated by Mr. Jacob at about 20,000,—a hardy race, with "much of the appearance of the natives of the north of Europe, the complexion of many approaching to ruddy." The air is esteemed remarkably salubrious; and the longevity of the inhabitants has given rise to the proverb, "In Ronda, a man of eighty is a boy." Under the Romans, this also was a municipal town, as appears from several inscriptions and coins. The inhabitants depend almost wholly on the productions of their fields and gardens. There

* From a fragment of the outer wall, which, though thrown down, has been held together by the cement, Mr. Jacob calculates the height to have been nearly seventy feet.

are manufactories which partially supply the district with serges, baize, flannels, leather, and hats; but none of these articles are sent beyond the neighbouring towns. "The fertile fields and productive gardens that surround Ronda, afford the people abundant means of subsistence. Besides wine, oil, and corn, which they enjoy in common with other parts of the province, they have a profusion of all the fruits and vegetables of our more northern climate. The apples and pears with which the trees are loaded, equal or excel in flavour those of our own country; and the cities of Cadiz and Seville, while they are supplied with oranges, lemons, grapes, and pomegranates from their immediate vicinity, are furnished from this quarter with the vegetable luxuries of northern Europe. The plains in this district abound with cattle, and the hills with game of all kinds. The roe-buck and fallow-deer are found on the sides of the mountains, and the wild boar is common among the woods. Wolves are very numerous on these mountains, and are sometimes so fierce as to attack horses or mules while the riders are on their backs, but they are alarmed at fire-arms; a peasant, therefore, never goes from home without carrying a gun.

"About a league south-east of the city is the highest of the mountains, called *Cresta de Gallo* (the Cock's Comb), from its very singular appearance; it is frequently the first land seen on approaching Cadiz. It consists of two ridges parallel to each other, and joined at the bottom. One is quite red, and though it is rather the highest, the snow never lies upon it. The other is white, and its top is always covered with snow. No trees grow on the white ridge, except oak or cork; and on the red ridge, none but pines. The former contains iron ore in great abundance; and the

latter, almost every mineral except iron. The waters issuing from the white ridge are chalybeate or vitriolic; and those from the red, are sulphureous or alkaline. A mine of black lead (*molybdena*) in these mountains, was formerly worked, but within the last twenty years it has been totally neglected. Tin was also found here; but the manufactory for tinning iron plates having been so ill conducted as to make the plates cost more than those brought from England, both the mine and the manufactory have been suffered to decay. The great quantity of iron ore in these mountains, where it is found in small balls not much larger than shot, the plenty of excellent fuel, and the red earth of the soil, which, by its resistance to fire, makes very good furnaces, have induced several attempts to establish iron-foundries; but none of them have hitherto succeeded, and the projectors have desisted after considerable losses. The most abundant of all the mineral productions in these mountains is the amianthus or asbestos, from which the fossil-cloth was made by the ancients. It is related of the Emperor Charles the Fifth, that he had a complete service of linen made from this substance, and surprised the ladies of his court, who were unacquainted with its peculiar property, by ordering them all to be thrown into the fire by way of cleansing them. The amianthus is so very abundant that I have been assured there are large rocks entirely composed of it; it is, however, a matter more of curiosity than of benefit; and if the art of spinning it be now lost, it is only because it is an art not worth retaining.* The speci-

* "Several attempts to convert it into cloth were made in Italy towards the close of the seventeenth century, and with such success, that Ciampini, in a pamphlet published at Rome in 1699, describes the process for making both cloth and paper of it."

mens I have met with in this place, are soft and flexible, and the fibres from three to five inches in length. When burned, it does not appear to diminish in bulk, but it loses part of its weight every time that it is set on fire. Mines of lead (*plumbago*) were formerly worked about half a league from this city, and also a mine of silver, which is said to have been opened by the Phenicians; these mines, however, like those of iron, tin, and black lead, are now totally neglected."

Scarcely any thing which Mr. Jacob saw in Spain, excited so much his admiration, he says, as the singular situation of Ronda. This city, which is encircled by the river Guadiaro, and connected with its suburbs by bridges, is "placed on a rock, with cliffs either perpendicular and abrupt towards the river, or with broken crags, whose jutting prominences, having a little soil, are planted with orange and fig-trees. A fissure in this rock, of great depth, surrounds the city on three sides; and at the bottom of the fissure, the river rushes along with impetuous rapidity. Two bridges are constructed over this fissure: the first is a single arch resting on the rocks on the two sides, the height of which from the water is 120 feet. The river descends from this to the second bridge, while the rocks on each side as rapidly increase in height; so that from this second bridge to the water, there is the astonishing height of 280 feet. The highest tower in Spain, the *Giralda* in Seville, or the Monument near London bridge, might stand under this stupendous arch, without their tops reaching to it. The mode of constructing this bridge is not less surprising than the situation in which it is placed and its extraordinary elevation: it is a single arch of 110 feet in diameter, supported by solid pillars of masonry,

built from the bottom of the river, about fifteen feet in thickness, which are fixed into the solid rock on both sides, and on which the ends of the arch rest: other pillars are built to support these principal ones, which are connected with them by other small arches. A bridge was built on this spot in 1735, but, the key-stone not having been properly secured, it fell down in 1741, by which fifty persons were killed. The present bridge was finished in 1774, by Don Josef Martin Aldehuela, a celebrated architect of Malaga, and appears so well constructed as to bid defiance almost to time itself. It is impossible to convey an adequate idea of it. From below, it appears suspended in the air. From above, the river beneath appears no longer a mighty torrent, but resembles a rippling brook. To one looking from the bridge, the optical illusion is very singular: the torrent of water seems to run up a hill towards the bridge; and the same phenomenon takes place when viewed in either direction. One of the streets of the city is built almost close to the edge of the precipice; and stairs are hewn out of the solid rock, which lead to nooks in the lower precipices, in which gardens have been formed, where fig and orange-trees grow with considerable luxuriance, and greatly contribute to the beauty of the scenery. Stairs are constructed down to the river, by which means the inhabitants are supplied with water. We descended by a flight of 350 steps, and at the bottom, found a fine spring in a large cave, which, after turning a mill at its source, enters the Guadiaro. From this spot, our view of the lofty bridge was most striking and impressive; and the houses and churches of the city, impending over our heads on both banks, had a most sublime effect. Beyond the bridge, the river takes a turn to the right, and passes under the

alameda, from which the precipice of 500 feet is very bold and abrupt, though interspersed with jutting prominences covered with shrubs and trees. The *alameda* of this city is by far the most beautiful public walk I have seen in Spain. The paths are paved with marble, the parterres are filled with evergreens, and over the paths, vines are trained on trellices, which in the warmest weather afford a grateful shade.

"Soon after the Guadiaro quits the rocks of Ronda, it receives the tributary streams of the Guadalevi, the Culebras, and the Alcobacen, and passes over the plain with this increase of water, till, at a league's distance, it is precipitated over some lofty rocks, making a cascade of striking beauty, and is at length received into a cavern, where it disappears. The entrance to this cavern, which is called *Cueva del Gato*, is very lofty. I was informed by those who had explored it, that, after advancing about a mile, it extends itself into a large lake, on the banks of which are ruins of an ancient edifice; that beyond the lake, which is of unfathomable depth, the passage made by the water is too small to admit of further discovery; and that sometimes the difficulty of discharging all the water by this aperture, causes the lake to rise almost to the roof. The termination of this cave is about four miles from its commencement, where the Guadiaro again becomes visible, and continues its course by Algaucin, till it enters the Mediterranean Sea.

"In the Dominican convent at Ronda, there is a singular repository for water, consisting of a large cavern, nearly on a level with the river, which was supplied with water by means of an aqueduct that formerly passed over the old bridge. It is descended by means of about 350 steps, and on the walls are

shewn marks of the cross which the Christian captives are said to have worn with their fingers in passing up and down, while they were obliged by the Moors to bring the water in skins from this reservoir to supply the wants of the inhabitants. The cavern is hollowed into spacious saloons, the roofs of which are formed into domes of prodigious height; and formerly, the whole was filled with water, but now the caverns are neglected, and are going so fast to decay, that in a few years they will be filled with the rubbish that falls from the roofs.

"The inhabitants of Ronda have peculiarities common to themselves and the other people in the mountainous districts, and obviously differ from the people on the plains. The dress both of the males and the females varies as well in the colour and shape of the garments, as in the materials of which they are composed, and is peculiarly calculated for cold weather. Their countenances are very expressive, and, in my judgement, superior to those of any race of people I have ever seen. The men are remarkably well-formed, robust, and active, with a flexibility of well-turned limbs, which gives them that agility for which they are celebrated. The females in general are of short stature; and the cumbersome dress which they wear, so conceals the figure, that it is difficult to determine whether they are well or ill formed; but there is an expression of sensibility in their countenances, and a peculiar grace in all their movements, which are extremely fascinating. In walking the streets, the women wear, as a substitute for caps or hats, veils made of a pink or pale blue flannel, which, with a petticoat of black stuff, form their principal dress. The men wear the *montero* cap, made of black velvet, (something in the shape of a sugar-loaf,) adorned with tas-

sels and fringe; and a short jacket with gold or silver buttons, and sometimes ornamented with embroidery, is worn just sufficiently open to display a very highly finished waistcoat; they wear leather or velvet breeches, with gaiters; so that the whole figure, which is generally good, is distinctly seen. There is a civility to strangers, and an easy style of behaviour, familiar to this class of Spanish society, very remote from the churlish and awkward manners of the English and German peasantry. Their sobriety and endurance of fatigue are very remarkable; and there is a constant cheerfulness in their demeanour, which strongly prepossesses a stranger in their favour. A young peasant never sleeps on a bed till he is married, but rests on the floor in his clothes, which he never takes off but for the purposes of cleanliness; and during the greater part of the year, it is a matter of indifference whether he sleep under a roof or in the open air. Though the Spanish peasantry treat every one they meet with politeness, they expect an equal return of civility; and to pass them without the usual salutation of *Vayausted con Dios* (God be with you), or saluting them without bestowing on them the title of *Caballeros*, would be risking an insult from people not a little jealous of their claims to reciprocal attention. I have been informed, that most of the domestic virtues are strongly felt and practised by the peasantry, and that a degree of parental, filial, and fraternal affection is observed among them, which is exceeded in no other country. They are usually fair and honourable in their dealings, and a foreigner is less subject to imposition in Spain, than in any other country I have visited. Their generosity is great, as far as their means extend; and many of our country-

men have experienced it in rather a singular way. I have been told that, after the Revolution, when Englishmen first began to travel in the Peninsula, many who had remained a few days at an inn, on asking for their bill at their departure, learned, to their great surprise, that some of the inhabitants had paid their reckoning, and forbidden the host to communicate to his guests the persons to whose civility they were indebted. It was common, if our countrymen went to a coffee-room or an ice-house, to discover, when they rose to depart, that their refreshment had been paid for by some one who had disappeared, and with whom they had not exchanged a word. I should be glad if I could with justice give as favourable a picture of the higher orders of society in this country. But, when we consider their wretched education and their early habits of indolence and dissipation, we ought not to wonder at the state of contempt and degradation to which they are reduced. Every accurate observer among our countrymen will concur with me in saying, that the figures and countenances of the higher orders are as much inferior to those of the peasantry, as their moral qualities are in the view I have given of them.

"The mountains in this neighbourhood are filled with contrabandists, who convey tobacco and other goods from Gibraltar to the interior of the country. They are an athletic race of men, with all the hardiness and spirit of enterprise which their dangerous occupation requires. They reside in the towns which are situated in the most mountainous parts of the country, and are well acquainted with all the passes and hiding-places. They are excellent marksmen; and though the habit of their lives has rendered them

disobedient to the revenue laws, yet, they are much attached to their native land."*

For the first hour and a half after leaving Ronda, the road ascends the hills southward of the city. From the summit, the view is extensive and delightful, stretching, to the west, towards Xeres and San Lucar, while to the south, is seen Gibraltar and the distant mountains of Africa. The rock of Gibraltar, from this eminence, appears a mere mole-hill when compared with Apes' Hill on the coast of Africa, though the latter is five or six leagues further distant. From this summit, the whole journey to Algaucin is a continual descent for nine hours. The road runs along the ridge of hills, which gradually become lower, with spacious and fertile valleys on both sides. These hills are covered to the tops with vines, but they are not much attended to by the proprietors. Very little wine is made in this district, though the vineyards are extensive, as their produce is generally appropriated to making either vinegar or brandy. "We observed," continues Mr. Jacob, "several towns in the most romantic situations, which appeared almost inaccessible; more especially one upon our right, the singularity of which, and the difficulty of reaching it, surpassed all the others. We passed on its eastern side, and some passengers informed us, that the only path to it was in the opposite direction, and accessible only to mules and asses. It was built by the Moors, and is called Zahara. The streets and houses are scooped out of the solid rock; and the descent down the precipices at the backs of the habitations, which are close to their edge, must be, on the sides from which we viewed it, at least 1,200 feet." The other

* Jacob, pp. 329—42.

towns, which are placed in positions of similar strength, are numerous, and give a peculiar character to the country.

Algaucin is finely situated on the ridge of a hill, whence a beautiful glacis, covered with orchards, vineyards, and corn-fields, extends to the valleys on either side. An ancient Moorish fort occupies the pinnacle of a rock above the town, while the river Guadiaro, flowing through the valley beneath, completes the beauty of the scene. It is the second city in the *Sierra de Ronda*, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants. There are some mineral springs in the neighbourhood, which are in high repute. Early the next morning, our Traveller was roused by his guide, who urged the necessity of instant departure, *because the rain fell in torrents.* There being neither bridges nor boats in this part of the route, there was no alternative but either to get the start of the mountain torrents, or to wait till the fords should again become passable. The necessity was still more obvious, when, after travelling at intervals, for considerable distances, along the bed of the Xucar, to its junction with the Guadiaro, they had to cross the united streams, already become deep and rapid. At the end of six hours, our Traveller halted for shelter under a wretched gipsy hut, the first habitation he had seen after leaving Algaucin. A barren country extends to the river Hogarganta, which he with difficulty crossed in a crazy ferry-boat, although, the day before, it had been nearly dry. In the evening, passing over the most wretched roads, through forests of cork-tree, he arrived at San Roque.

This is an ill-paved town of miserable appearance, although the environs are agreeable and highly cultivated. It boasts, however, of a *posada*, "equalling in comfort an English inn," being the resort of the

officers from Gibraltar, who make excursions into Spain. This place has derived an importance from being the site of the encampment and works of the besieging army which invested Gibraltar in the years 1779—82. The camp is now nothing but a heap of ruins; but traces of the trenches and *epaulements* are still to be discovered, with the large stone tower, called the Tower of the Mill, the only object that escaped the ravages of the contending armies, and the site of the little gardens which the English had been permitted to make before their fortress, beyond the limits to which they were confined by the Peace of Utrecht. From Buena Vista, a large house on an eminence which formed the head-quarters of the French general Crillon, that celebrated rock is seen lifting its proud height, while beyond, the eye ranges over the two seas and the African coast.

GIBRALTAR.

HERE, where now the British standard streams, the terror and hope of Africa, and the safeguard of Spain, the Mussulman legions, led by the Moorish general Tarik, first landed on the Spanish soil.*

* "Thou, Calpe, saw'st their coming; ancient rock
Renown'd, no longer now shalt thou be called,
From gods and heroes of the years of yore,
Kronos, or hundred-handed Briareus,
Bacchus or Hercules; but doom'd to bear
The name of thy new conqueror, and thenceforth
To stand his everlasting monument."

SOUTHEY'S *Roderick*, vol. i. p. 2.

Such is the generally received derivation of Gibraltar, *Gebel al Tarik*, the mountain of Tarik (or Tarif), which is adopted even by Gibbon; and Ben Hazel, a Granadan Moor, says expressly, we are told, that the mountain derived its name from that general. Other authorities, however, assign as a more probable etymology,

Here, too, in more remote times, according to Pomponius Mela, himself a native of Cadiz, the early navigators of the Mediterranean are said to have first embarked, and the two vast mountain pillars on either side of the strait, Calpe and Abila, received the name of the Phenician Hercules. The narrow outlet which unites the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, the ancient *Fretum Gaditaneum*, is about eight leagues in length,* and its breadth, in the narrowest part, is nearly five.

The promontory of Gibraltar is joined to the Spanish main by a neck of land so narrow, that from some aspects, it has the appearance of an island. It is about three miles in length from north to south, varying from one-half to three-fourths of a mile in width, and from 1,200 to 1,400 feet in height. The rock is steepest towards the Mediterranean, and gradually declines towards the bay; but here, "Nature, as if to render Gibraltar inaccessible on all sides, has placed between the foot of this fortress on the west and the Bay of Algesiras, a deep swamp, which extends to the land gate, leaving between them only space sufficient for a very narrow causeway, commanded by nearly one

Gebel al Tath, which is said to signify the mountain of the entrance, it being considered as the key of the straits. *Tauh*, in Hebrew, signifies *finis*, end or limit, which might not inappropriately have been given to Mount Calpe as the extreme point of Europe. *Gebel Tour*, in Arabic, signifies simply high mountain. The derivation of Calpe is unknown, or that might help to decide the question. Mr. Southey refers us, for the "former appellations" of this celebrated promontory, to a History of Gibraltar by D. Ignacio Lopez de Ayala. Not having access to the work of the learned Don, we regret that Mr. S. has not told us what they were, although we have a great distrust of the Spanish etymologists.

* Reckoning, however, from Gibraltar and Ceuta, to Cape Trafalgar and Cape Spartel, the Straits are above 100 miles in length. A strong current always sets from the ocean into the Mediterranean. The narrowest part is about eight miles westward of Gibraltar

hundred pieces of cannon. Between this swamp and the bay, a small dike runs along by the sea-side to confine the water; and within the enclosure of the fortress, the marsh is bordered by a palisade, which begins at the foot of the mountain, and terminates at the sea. From this point, you may distinctly see the old mole, a kind of narrow jetty, lined on either side with batteries. It entirely masks the new mole, which is half a league behind it." The northern front of the rock is almost perpendicular; the eastern is full of frightful precipices; the southern, being narrow and abrupt, presents hardly any possibility of approach even to an enemy in command of the sea. The western front, though almost as abrupt as the others, may be approached by shipping from the bay, and on this side, accordingly, the attacks of assailants have always been directed. The town stands at the foot of the promontory, on the north-western side. It is strongly fortified, but its chief protection is derived from the batteries on the neighbouring heights, which sweep both the isthmus and the approach by water. After the fortifications of Cadiz, these of Gibraltar appeared to Mr. Jacob deficient in beauty, and had even an air of meanness; but this is amply compensated by the superiority of their construction. "The principal batteries are casemated; and traverses are constructed to prevent the mischief which might arise from the explosion of shells. The principal strength of the place depends on the shortness of the line of defence, and the prodigious flanking fires which may annoy the enemy from the projecting parts of the rock on the north-east. The most extraordinary works are the galleries excavated from the solid rock, in which loop-holes are formed for the reception of cannon of large calibre. These guns are pointed to

the narrow causeway which alone gives a passage to the town. But the most striking part of the galleries is St. George's Chapel, scooped out of the solid rock about 400 feet above the level of the sea, and filled with cannon. Over this, Willis's Battery is situated, having its artillery pointed in the same direction. On a level with the entrance is placed another battery, called the Devil's Tongue, which flanks one entrance, and on which, it is said, 600 pieces of artillery might be brought to bear on an attacking enemy. The whole rock is lined with batteries to the water's edge, from the land gate to Europa Point. Yet this, being deemed the weakest part of the fortress, was that on which the attack was made in the last memorable siege. The Spaniards hoped to silence and level these forts by their floating batteries, and then, with an army of 30,000 men, which they had embarked on board small craft at Algeziras, to carry the fortress by storm."

"The court of Spain," says M. Bourgoing, "weary of the fruitless blockade of Gibraltar, which excited the ridicule of all Europe, and of the besieged themselves, seriously determined to take this fortress by some extraordinary expedient, against which its steepness, its formidable artillery, and all the skill of General Elliot should prove unavailing. Plans poured in from all quarters, some bold to extravagance, others so whimsical, that it was scarcely possible to look upon them as serious. Several of this kind I received myself.* One of those sent to the ministers, formally proposed to throw up, in front of the lines of San Roque, a prodigious mount, higher than Gibraltar,

* M. Bourgoing was minister plenipotentiary from France to the Court of Madrid.

which would consequently deprive that fortress of its principal means of defence. The projector had calculated the quantity of cubic fathoms of earth, the number of hands, and the time that would be required by this enormous undertaking, and proved that it would be less expensive and less destructive than the prolongation of the siege upon the plan upon which it had been begun. Another proposed to fill the bombs with a substance so strongly mephitic, that, on bursting in the fortress, they would either put to flight or poison the besieged with their exhalations. The plan of D'Arçon was at length presented, and engaged the more serious attention of the Spanish Government. Scarcely any thing is known respecting it, except what relates to the ten floating batteries, which, on the 13th of September, 1782, foolishly exposed themselves to the fire of Gibraltar, and were reduced to ashes by the red-hot balls of the English batteries..... The ten batteries had been so constructed as to present to the fire of the fortress one side covered with blinds three feet thick, and kept continually wet by a very ingenious contrivance. The red-hot balls were thus expected to be extinguished on the spot where they penetrated; but this first measure proved incomplete. The awkwardness of the caulkers prevented the working of the pumps which were designed to keep up the humidity. But this was not all. Though the place where they were to take their stations had been but very slightly sounded, they had received instructions what course they were to pursue, in order to avoid striking, and to place themselves at a proper distance. This precaution likewise proved unavailing. Don Ventura Moreno, stung to the quick by a letter from General Crillon, containing these words: 'If you do not make an attack, you are a man without honour'—

hastened the departure of the batteries, and placed them in an order contrary to the plan which had been agreed on. In consequence of this mistake, not more than two could station themselves at the concerted distance of 200 fathoms. These were the *Pastora*, commanded by Moreno himself, and the *Talla-piedra*, on board of which were the Prince of Nassau and D'Arçon. But they were exposed to the fire of the most formidable battery, that of the Royal Bastion, instead of all ten being drawn up around the old mole, and receiving only sideways the fire of that battery. The only two batteries which occupied this dangerous post, made great havoc, and sustained dreadful loss. The *Talla-piedra* received a fatal shot. In spite of all precautions, a red-hot ball penetrated to the dry part of the vessel. Its effect was very slow. The *Talla-piedra* had opened her fire about ten in the morning; the ball struck her between three and five, but the mischief did not appear irremediable till midnight. The San Juan, one of her next neighbours, shared the same fate. It appears certain, that the eight others remained untouched. But what was still more distressing, every thing was wanting at once,—cables to tow off the batteries in case of accident, and boats to receive the wounded. The attack was to have been supported by ten ships and upwards of sixty gun-boats. Neither boats, gun-boats, nor ships made their appearance. Lastly, according to the projected position, the gun-boats were to have been seconded by the 180 pieces of cannon at the lines of San Roque: this co-operation was rendered impracticable. Nearly 400 pieces of artillery were to have opened at once upon North Bastion, Montagu Bastion, and Orange Bastion. With a superiority of nearly 300 pieces, D'Arçon flattered himself that he should be able to silence the

artillery of the fortress. What was his consternation, when he found that the besiegers had not more than sixty or seventy pieces to oppose to above 280 belonging to the besieged! The combined squadron remained quiet spectators of this tremendous scene. Guichen, who commanded the French ships, sent to offer assistance to Moreno, who replied that he had not occasion for any. Matters continued to grow worse, and no remedy could be devised. Eight of the ten batteries were at too great a distance to do or to sustain much injury: the other two bore in their bosom the elements of destruction. Moreno, despairing of being able to save any of them, and resolving that they should not fall into the hands of the English, directed that those which were already in flames should be suffered to burn, and that all the others should be set on fire. I have seen the original order to this effect. Such was the result of that day, on which were annihilated ten vessels, the master-pieces of human ingenuity, the building of which had cost 3,000,000 of livres, and whose artillery, anchors, cables, rigging, &c., amounted to nearly 2,500,000 more."*

Such is the French account, evidently a very partial and unsatisfactory one, of the "fatal termination of the grand enterprise which had engaged the attention of all Europe." The whole power of the French and

* M. Bourgoing states in a note, that he had for a considerable time in his possession the original of the short but emphatic letter which D'Arçon addressed to Montmorin, the ambassador, from the shore of Algeziras, amid the dying sound of the artillery, and by the light of the burning batteries. It was as follows: "I have burned the temple of Ephesus; every thing is lost, and through my fault. What comforts me under my misfortune is, that the glory of the two kings remains untarnished." On recovering, however, from the shock, D'Arçon drew up a learned memoir, in which he took great pains to modify the confession which had escaped him.—BOURGOING, vol. iii. pp. 209—215.

Spanish monarchies had been exerted on this occasion. The preparations both by sea and land were immense, and the quantities of artillery and every description of military stores and provision which had been collected, were unprecedented. There are said to have been not less than 83,000 barrels of gunpowder. The combined fleets of France and Spain, amounting to about fifty sail of the line, were to cover and support the attack, together with forty gun-boats with heavy artillery, as many bomb-vessels with twelve-inch mortars, almost all the frigates and smaller vessels that could be assembled, and 300 large boats. In the besieging army were 12,000 French soldiers, headed by the Count d'Artois and the Duke de Bourbon, who came with a brilliant retinue to witness the reduction of the place,—so confident were the besiegers of success. When the bombardment and cannonade were opened, the effect is represented as having been tremendous beyond all conception. The number of red-hot balls which the battering ships alone received from the English furnaces, was estimated in their own accounts at not less than 4,000. For some time, the fire was so nearly equal on both sides, that the issue of the contest seemed doubtful, till, about three o'clock, the effect of the red-hot shot upon the floating batteries began to be discovered by the smoke which broke forth from two of those tremendous engines, followed at length by volumes of flame, which announced the dreadful explosion that shortly terminated the terrific conflict. That Moreno set fire to the eight remaining batteries, as asserted by M. Bourgoing, is not only at variance with all other testimony, but with probability and common sense. That he ever gave such an order, is not less questionable than his supposed directions that the two already in flames

should be suffered to burn, when the flames could not be got under! No boats, we are told, had appeared to receive the wounded; and yet, without the means of escape, it is pretended, that the Spanish admiral, regardless alike of the lives of his men, and the value of the vessels, ordered eight battering ships which remained untouched to be set on fire, because *two* had been destroyed! M. Bourgoing does not tell the sequel. The light of morning disclosed a dreadful spectacle. Numbers of men were seen in the midst of the burning ships, crying out for pity and aid, and others, floating on pieces of timber, were seen exposed to equal peril of an opposite kind. The fire from the garrison immediately ceased, and every possible endeavour was made by the British marines to rescue the now defenceless enemy from destruction. By these generous efforts, about 400 men were saved from the flames and the waves.* The loss of the besieged is said to have been small, and the damage done to the works bore no proportion to the weight of fire they had sustained. In whatever degree the failure may be attributable to the evident want of concert and co-operation among the assailants,† never was defeat more signal and decisive in its issue; and

* Capt. Curtis of the Brilliant frigate is said to have distinguished himself in particular by his exertions, at the imminent risk of his personal safety; for his pinnace being close to one of the burning ships when she blew up, not only several of his men were killed, but a large hole was made in the bottom of the boat by the falling timber, which was with difficulty stopped till other boats could arrive to their assistance.

† M. Bourgoing pathetically adverts to "French impatience, national jealousy, intrigues of rivalship, impetuous colleagues, perfidious plots, and suspicious alarms of authority," as all conspiring to frustrate M. d'Arçon's admirable but unsuccessful plan. It is certain, that the French and the Spaniards never act cordially together.

the glory which the defence shed on the British garrison, was only eclipsed by the nobler triumph of humanity, when our sailors were seen venturing their own lives to save the vanquished.

Gibraltar was taken by the English during the Succession war, in 1704; since which time it has repeatedly been besieged, but always without success. The garrison in 1779 varied from 5,000 to 7,000 men. It had at that period no regular communication with England, and could be relieved only by a powerful fleet. This was effected, successively, by Admiral Rodney and Admiral Darby, and a third time, a month after the last formidable assault, by Admiral Lord Howe.* The siege was definitively relinquished on the signature of a treaty of peace in February 1783. In this last siege, the town was almost destroyed, but it has been rebuilt on an improved plan. The principal street, which is full of shops, traverses nearly the whole town, being half a mile in length. All the houses are built in the English style, with small doors, flat roofs, and "enormous bow-windows," behind which goods of all sorts are exposed to sale. M. Laborde is all astonishment how so much merchandise can be disposed of in so small a place, insulated on all sides, and without any open communication with Spain. The greater part of the inhabitants are mili-

* "Scarcely had Gibraltar foiled this formidable attempt," says M. Bourgoing, "when, in sight of our armies and our squadrons, the place was re-victualled by Admiral Howe, who afterwards with his thirty-six ships boldly entered the Mediterranean. He was seen from Buena Vista passing from one sea to the other; and every spectator supposed that he was running into the jaws of destruction. The fifty-two ships that were in the bay, weighed anchor and pursued him. But Howe baffled our manœuvres, and returned through the straits in the same security as he had entered them."

tary; the rest chiefly merchants; and besides the British, there are Spaniards, Italians, Moors, and Jews.* The principal buildings are, the marine hospital, the victualling office, the barracks, and the convent, now the governor's house. The places of worship are, an English church, a Roman Catholic chapel, a Wesleyan Methodist chapel, and four synagogues. There is a small but elegant theatre. A public library instituted by Mr. Pitt, is attached to the garrison. "This institution," says Mr. Jacob, "together with the sensible and polite conversation of the engineer and artillery officers, most of whom are men of education and liberal minds, gives an agreeable tone to the society and manners. Nothing, however, can be more miserable than the appearance of the civil inhabitants of the town, whether Moors, Jews, or Christians. They live crowded together in habitations resembling barracks rather than houses, which are as filthy as their persons." Owing to this circumstance, the plague, when introduced here from Cadiz in 1804, swept off thousands. The place is otherwise esteemed healthy, the climate being less sultry than might be expected in such a latitude. The population is about

* Mr. Wolf, the missionary to the Jews, who visited Gibraltar in 1821, was informed by Gabay, a learned Jew, that the number of Jews there is between three and four thousand, all Talmudists and observing the Spanish rites, and that they have four synagogues. By the presidents of the three chief synagogues, however, he was afterwards assured, that there are not more than 1,600 Jews at Gibraltar,—families were probably meant. Many of them are Moorish Jews, refugees from Barbary, where they are held in extreme degradation. "The Jews," remarks M. Laborde, "live more securely here than in any other part of Europe; and so great a number of them assemble from all parts, that, in process of time, this famous rock will be a colony of Jews." The principal synagogue is handsome, "having three aisles separated by pillars of the Doric order," with a pulpit towards the centre for the rabbi.

12,000, inclusive of the garrison. "To a person coming direct from England," says Mr. Jacob, "Gibraltar will not appear a very pleasing place of residence; but after passing a few months in the best cities of Spain, it appears a paradise"—owing, he means, to its restoring the traveller to "English society and English comforts."

The upper part of the rock of Gibraltar consists of excellent limestone, resting on a base of granite, and containing a number of caverns. The most remarkable is St. Michael's cave, about half way up on the south-western side. The entrance is about twenty-five feet in height, and about thirty in breadth. It is full of stalactites of a large size, reaching from the roof to the floor, and having the appearance of pillars. A gradual descent of 400 feet leads through apartments of natural arches in various directions, supported by similar columns. Besides these natural excavations, others have been effected by the force of gunpowder in the centre of the mountain, and form vaults of such height and extent, that, in case of a siege, they would contain the whole garrison. These caverns, the most considerable of which is the Hall of St. George, communicate with the batteries established all along the mountain by a winding road passable throughout on horseback. "It is impossible," says Laborde, "to do justice to the taste and magnificence of the English, on seeing the care with which they have embellished the rock. They have spared nothing to cover it with trees and flowers, to support the earth with walls and other props, to cut a number of roads through the solid rock, and make them passable on horseback and in carriages up to the very top. They have even sown some artificial meadows for their flocks; an excellent example to the Spaniards, who

could obtain with much more facility the same advantages in their fertile country. From the grotto of St. Michael, you discover the magazines, the batteries, the new town; on the south, the marine hospital, a handsome and commodious building. The view extends over a number of country-houses, to some of which beautiful gardens are attached. In time, these new buildings will form a town as considerable as that of Gibraltar. Near it, there are eight magnificent cisterns, large enough to contain 40,000 tuns of water. These cisterns are bomb-proof; they receive all the water that flows down the side of the mountain, previously purified in coppers erected for that purpose. The English have formed a project for building over these cisterns an edifice for keeping every thing necessary for victualling ships; and the hospital as well as the artillery park being near, they could then instantly refit a squadron with every thing it might want. From Europa Point to the gate on the land side, are several moles, which facilitate the unlading of ships, and enable them to cast anchor in greater security; yet, they are constantly at work upon them, as well as upon the fortifications, to which they are adding something every day." The small plain on the southern side, which terminates in Europa Point, is somewhat elevated above the sea, towards which it is bounded on all sides by rocks. On the steep eastern side, several winding passages, defended by batteries, are constructed along the face of the mountain, which conduct to the Mediterranean Stairs,—a long flight of steps cut in the rock, by which you may reach the summit. The whole of the rest of this side is perfectly inaccessible, except one or two spots near the base, where fishermen sometimes land. The view from the summit is extremely interesting and exten-

sive. From its bare ridge, on which we stand with a kind of dread, we see to the southward, on the opposite side of the straits, Ape's-Hill, the Abyla of the ancients, generally capped with clouds, the African shore tapering down from it, and shutting in, with the coast of Spain, the entrance of the Straits, and the distant waters of the Atlantic.* To the east, the Mediterranean stretches out in boundless prospect. On its northern side, rise the mountains of Granada, the Alpuxarras, and the *Sierra Nevada*, their lofty summits covered with snow, or buried in thick clouds. Lastly, to the west, the Bay of Gibraltar lies beneath our feet; on the opposite side, stands the town of Algeziras, and behind it rise the mountains which form a petty branch of the Granada chain, and terminate at the Straits, where they open towards the Atlantic. A tower has been built at the highest point, about 1,300 feet above the sea, which was intended by General O'Hara to overlook the high lands which intercept the distant view of the Atlantic towards the N.W., so as to enable him to watch the motions of any fleet in the Bay of Cadiz. But it was never used; and having, from its height, been frequently struck by lightning, is now a heap of ruins, serving only to add another impressive feature to the scene. The crevices of the rock are the resort of African apes of a large size: here they hide themselves when the east wind blows; but at other times, they make their appearance in considerable numbers, and sometimes greatly incommode passengers by rolling down broken fragments of rock. No one is permitted to shoot them, the strictest orders being

* Laborde asserts, that the three kingdoms of Barbary, Fez, and Morocco may be seen from this point.

issued, that no gun shall be fired on the rock, which, says Mr. Jacob, as the place abounds with game, proves to sportsmen a great mortification.

Gibraltar derives its chief importance from its bay, which is about ten miles in length from S.S.E. to N.N.W. and eight in breadth, and being protected from the more dangerous winds, is an important naval station. It is formed, to the eastward, by the promontory of Gibraltar, with its isthmus of sand, and to the westward, by the bases of the mountains behind Algeziras, which terminate in the sea near Tariffa. A flat coast, backed by several small heights, forms the head of the bay. On one of these heights is placed the small town of San Roque, "so called from a solitary hermit who died here, and whose cell and chapel are still shewn." On another height are the ruins, now scarcely distinguishable, of the ancient Carteia, once a celebrated city, occupying great part of the ground between Gibraltar and the Guadaranca.* "On the top of this hill," Mr. Semple states, "the Queen of Spain took her station during the great siege of Gibraltar, in order to behold the English colours lowered. She was disappointed, but the hill still retains the name of the Queen of Spain's Chair." Between these heights and the rock are the Spanish

* "Scarcely a vestige now remains of that celebrated city, which is known to have flourished when the Phenicians first traded with Spain, 900 years B.C. It was conquered by the Carthaginians 280 years B.C., continued a naval station of great importance during the civil wars between Cæsar and the Pompeys, and was the place from which, after the fatal battle of Munda, Cneius Pompey escaped, to meet his untimely death on the shore of Alicant. A large farm-house is constructed from the ruins of Carteia, and several Roman inscriptions have been discovered, which clearly ascertain its site."—JACOB, p. 213. Numerous coins also have been, and still continue to be dug up, generally marked with a tunny-fish.

lines drawn across the isthmus, from the head of the bay to the Mediterranean. The port of Gibraltar is not natural, but is formed by moles: it is of considerable extent, but is not secure against every wind. Gibraltar is situated in lat. 36° 6′ 42″ N., long. 5° 19′ 4″ W.

A few miles westward of San Roque, we cross the Guadaranca, a stream of considerable depth, in a ferry-boat moved by a rope. A flat of about two miles, intersected by ditches and causeways, brings us to the river Palmones, near its mouth. This stream runs past the town of Los Barrios, situated inland from the head of the Bay, and near which a neat bridge is thrown over it. It is here crossed in a ferry. If the tide be low, we may continue our route along the sands, till we climb a low ridge, presenting to the sea sometimes a cliff of dark rocks, and sometimes of light sandstone, along the summit of which Algeziras is partly built. This forms the first ascent towards the mountains. Gibraltar, which is now opposite, is clearly descried across the bay. Descending from these small heights, we now coast the head of a small bay, passing along the sands till we arrive on the opposite side, when we again climb the hills, and soon fall into the miserable rocky path which leads to Tariffa. To this town belongs the distinction, erroneously assigned to Gibraltar, of being placed on the most southern point of Europe. It is situated in the Straits, several miles to the westward of the low, rocky point which bounds on that side the Bay of Gibraltar, and is in all probability the spot at which the Moorish general whose name it bears effected his landing. Like Algeziras, the town is of Moorish foundation. All along the shores of the bay, from the northern base of Gibraltar to the western

point, are a chain of towers, some still standing, and others in ruins.

"Algeziras, situated on the western side of the Bay of Gibraltar, was, at the commencement of the last century, a place of little importance, and consisted chiefly of fishermen's huts. But the capture and continued possession of Gibraltar by the English, renders a counterpoint in the bay necessary to Spain; and from that moment it has continued to increase. Its chief trade, in time of peace, is a contraband one with the English; but it flourishes mostly in war, from the great resort of gun-boats and privateers, which find here a commodious situation for observing and capturing enemies' vessels in the narrow entrance of the Mediterranean. It is built partly on a flat along the beach, and partly on the slope of small heights, which form the first elevation from the sea towards the mountains behind the town. These mountains appear in general to be about two thousand feet in height, extending in a north-easterly direction from the borders of the Straits near Tariffa, towards the mountains of Granada, of which they probably form an appendage. They are considerably steep towards the Bay, but still more so on the western side, where they present bare summits, apparently inaccessible, and valleys of great depth. From them flow several small streams which fall into the Bay. The mouth of one of them, named *El Miel*, forms a creek, the banks on one side of which are steep, but flat on the other, and on this flat stands the lower part of Algeziras. In this part is the market-place, ornamented with a fountain, where the water brought by the aqueduct from the hills is discharged, and serves to supply the whole town and shipping, very little rain being collected in cisterns. The general appearance of the town by no means

belies the first impressions made on descending in to it from the mountains, being poorly built, except a few houses belonging to the principal inhabitants; and even these are unworthy of notice, the residence of the governor being inferior in appearance to an ordinary gentleman's house in England. The streets, however, are not inconveniently narrow, and the houses, being generally built of stone, have a better look than the mud-walled and straw-thatched houses so common in the western provinces. The inhabitants make great use of flat, grey stones to roof their houses. This stone is found in quarries in a bay to the southward of the town, and separates naturally into large *laminæ* or plates, and is therefore well adapted for the purpose, not being apt to break, nor to loosen and blow off in heavy winds like slates. The only ornament of the town is the quadrangular tower of the new church, from the top of which the signals made along the coast are answered and repeated. It is partly built out of the ruins of a very ancient tower which stood on the same spot: the old mortar had become as hard as stone, and has been worked in a similar manner in the new building. The church, in its interior regulations, partakes in a very faint degree of the magnificence of the churches in the principal towns of Spain, and shews from this material distinction, the recent rise of Algeziras. The fortifications and batteries are as contemptible as the town itself; but what renders it chiefly notorious, is the shelter it affords to the numerous gun-boats and small privateers which infest the entrance of the Mediterranean..... Some ruins still remain of the old town, founded by the Moors, which stood a little to the south of the present town, on the opposite side of the creek. They consist principally of the solid bases of square

towers at regular intervals, the slight remains of walls, and in some places the form of the ditch. One old tower is entire, close upon the water, and is still used by the Spaniards.*.....Like all the towns along the coast of Spain till we cross the Guadalaviar, and even till we approach the Ebro, Algeziras retains, in the manners of the inhabitants, strong traces of the Moors. The principal part of the inhabitants are drawn from the provinces of Andalusia, and in general from the lowest classes; but there are great numbers of adventurers and desperadoes from every climate and country, who have come hither in search of fortune, and to man the gun-boats and privateers. Those who at present (1805) are the richest inhabitants, were, a few years ago, men of no credit or respectability even among the banditti of Algeziras. As their riches have all been acquired from the capture of British property or of neutral property condemned as British, they are naturally eager for the continuance of war. Add to these, the swarm of privateers and gun-vessels which harbour here, and it will not be wondered at that Algeziras exceeds every town in Spain in animosity towards the English. Even here, however, this spirit is daily softening. Besides this, the manners are here more depraved and profligate, mixed with a kind of ferocity, than I had observed any where else in this country. Assassinations are frequent; and in most of the streets, the houses are marked with a cross, as a sign of murder having been committed near the spot.

* The works formed an oblong upon a height, defended on one side by a small brook, on the other, by the creek, while the end towards the sea rested on a cliff thirty feet in height; it thus occupied a sort of peninsula, whence its name, *al jezeira*, applied by the Arabs to either an island or a peninsula. Mr. Semple supposed the name to be a corruption of *al kasr* (or *alcazar*), the castle.

I had been accustomed," adds Mr. Semple, "to observe these melancholy memorials along the road side, on barren heaths or in the bosom of deep forests; but, till I reached Algeziras, I had never seen them thickly planted in the streets of a populous town." *

This Traveller reached Algeziras over land from Cadiz, crossing the high mountain of *La Trocha* by a track impassable by any sort of carriage. The whole country, he says, is well deserving the attention of the naturalist. A place called Benalia, about six leagues from the Isle of Leon, affords the only decent *posada* on the route, which is wild and rugged in the extreme. Mr. Jacob passed from Cadiz to Gibraltar by sea.† Unfortunately, it was dark when the vessel was near Cape Trafalgar; that proud spot which may be considered as our Nelson's appropriate monument, —a pillar of England's greatness, towering at one end of the Strait, as Gibraltar stands sentinel at the other. It is about thirty miles S.E. of Cadiz; lat. 36° 10′ N., long. 6° 8′ W. Before, however, we land the reader at that city, we shall take up the narrative of the English Travellers from whom we parted at Antequera, and pursue the direct route from that city.‡

* Semple's Observations on a Journey through Spain and Italy, &c. vol. i. pp. 170—188. Similar memorials of atrocity are to be seen, however, in the city of Valencia. See p. 161.

† He subsequently returned from Gibraltar to Cadiz, by way of Dos Barrios, crossing a *sierra* not so high, though not less wild than *La Trocha*. The only town on this route is Vegel, seated on the summit of a mountain, and containing 7,000 inhabitants.

‡ This may be a proper place briefly to notice Mr. Jacob's route from San Roque to Malaga, which lay along the coast. After crossing a barren mountain and fording the Guadiaro, he travelled at the foot of the lofty *Sierra de Gaucin* (or *Vermeja*) to the small fishing-town of Estepona, containing nearly 1,000 families. Between the Guadiaro and this place, he crossed fourteen *arroyos*, or channels of torrents, which occasionally rush down from the mountains

FROM ANTEQUERA TO CADIZ.

FROM Antequera to Pedrera, the country is "champaign and pleasant:" some large lakes appearing be-

with irresistible force, suspending all communication. The ruins of several Roman towns mentioned in the Itinerary are still visible between the foot of the mountains and the beach, and numerous inscriptions and coins have been found in various places. The country is sandy and barren, with no shrubs but the palmito. The mountains appeared to be either marble or quartz superposed on granite. The *Sierra Vermeja* takes its name from a reddish marble, which prevails in this formation. After crossing the *Rio Verde*, about nine leagues from *San Roque*, a striking change appears in the aspect of the country: the plain becomes broader and enriched with every tropical production. For a considerable distance on both sides of the road, fields of sugar-canes, nine or ten feet high, are intermixed with rice-grounds; and several sugar-mills are seen, transporting the traveller in imagination to Jamaica. A considerable quantity of cotton and some coffee are also cultivated in this plain. The day's journey terminated at Marvella, a town containing three monasteries, a handsome parish-church and town-house, and about 8,000 inhabitants. The streets are narrow, but are well lighted at night. The vineyards and plantations belong to merchants of Malaga, who have their agents here. About half way up the neighbouring *sierra*, and half a mile perpendicular height above the sea, stands the town of Mija, overlooking the plain. Three hours from Marvella, the road leaves the beach, and ascends a small mountain, on the edge of which stands a castle of Roman foundation and Moorish superstructure, which must formerly have been impregnable. The view which bursts on the traveller through a chasm, on nearly reaching the summit, is incomparably fine. A rugged road, through verdant shrubs mingled with cork-trees, leads to the beautiful valley of Fuengerola, from which the mountains rise in cultivated terraces, covered with the vine, the olive, and the fig-tree, and backed by the snow-capped summits of a loftier range. A fissure in the marble rock, worn by the rains, affords the only road by which the traveller has now to climb the steep side of a mountain, to Benalmeida, beautifully situated in the midst of a cultivated tract. The descent from this place to Torre Molinos is by a road not less rugged, and for two hours through a most dreary country, with the lofty *sierra* on one hand, and a barren, rocky soil on the other, rendered yet more gloomy by the crucifixes erected

tween the road and the mountains, and now and then some forest-land and olive-plantations serve to enliven the prospect. "I never saw trees with so much pleasure," says M. Peyron, "as the first I met with after passing through Pedrera, so melancholy had I become in the dreary plains of Antequera." The country is then well cultivated as far as Ossuna, described by Swinburne as "a large, stinking town," but with pleasant environs. This is an ancient place, and was besieged by Cæsar, who was compelled to bring his provisions and even water from a distance, the fountain within the walls being the only water within eight miles. From Ossuna to Pueblo de Cazolla, nothing is to be seen but uncultivated plains, and "the road is a league wide." That village is pleasantly situated, but beyond it, marshy plains again succeed, and extend to the small town of El Harrahal: in the whole distance, there occurs not even a cottage. Four leagues further over the same uncultivated level country, is Utrera, a "considerable town;" and marshes, which become dangerous in the rainy season, extend between that town and Cabezas, where the traveller again

here and there in this savage wilderness. Near Torre Molinos, there are several large caverns, well calculated for concealment, in one of which Marcus Crassus lay hid for eight months, when he fled from the proscription of Cinna and Marius, till, on the death of the tyrant, he made his appearance, collected a small army, and seized the city of Malaga. The story is told by Plutarch. This village is delightfully situated near the entrance of the plain of Malaga, and abounds with beautiful streams that serve to irrigate the adjoining sugar-plantations and rice-fields. Near it stands a large government manufactory of playing-cards, by which this part of Spain and Spanish America were formerly supplied. During the whole journey from Gibraltar to Malaga, a distance of nearly a hundred miles, Mr. Jacob met but one traveller on horseback. There are no bridges, no roads, and every article of traffic is carried on the back of asses.

finds himself at the foot of a chain of mountains. Mr. Swinburne describes his first day's journey after leaving Ossuna, as lying through " a beautiful park-like country, where the swells are covered with forests of pines and cork-trees, and the intermediate valleys afford pasture to herds of brood mares." In the afternoon, he came to a flat heath covered with rushes and palmitos, where he saw large flights of vultures, storks, and plovers. The next day, the road lay over boundless heaths, where innumerable herds of cattle were pastured, and arable grounds. In one field, he noticed no fewer than twenty-four ploughs, each drawn by a pair of oxen. " We had now," he says, " fairly entered the rich plains of Andalusia, where we found the roads cruelly spoiled by the wet weather, and our wheels almost buried in the stiff clay." Cabezas appears, from the scattered ruins, to have been formerly a place of some consideration: it is built on a hill, at the beginning of a chain of mountains. A little further on is the *venta* of Alcantarilla; and not far from the inn, is a bridge of two arches over a deep, marshy channel, guarded at each end by an old Moorish tower. The lower part of the bridge is Roman, and the words AVGVST...PONTEM, Swinburne says, are still legible between the arches. It was formerly ornamented, also, with some magnificent columns of green jasper, now in the cathedral at Seville. This bridge derives its importance from being the pass over the marshes formed by the Guadalquiver. Two leagues beyond Alcantarilla, the marshes disappear, and the remainder of the road to Xeres lies through a fertile and well-cultivated country. " Were this province properly peopled," remarks this Traveller, " there would be no bounds to its productiveness; for the soil is inexhaustible. The crops in

Andalusia, however, are very precarious; for, if a sudden glare of sunshine succeeds too rapidly to a morning fog, the whole country is blighted." The fallow lands were covered in some places with a strong growth of French honeysuckle. The lake of Lebrixa, on the road to Xeres, is surrounded with sloping grounds covered with olive-plantations.

Xeres de la Frontera is a considerable city, situated on the bank of the Guadalete, which is here seen winding its narrow course to the sea through an immense marshy flat, in which "not a stick of wood is to be seen," and the river, Swinburne says, much resembles those in the Lincolnshire fens. Within two miles of the city, it is not navigable even by boats. Inconsiderable as it is, however, it is fatally celebrated in Spanish history, on account of the battle fought on its banks between the Last of the Goths and the Moorish invaders in 712, which decided the fate of Spain. To this circumstance it is said to owe its name, "the river of joy."*

Xeres is believed to occupy the site of the ancient *Asta Regia*. The approach on the Cadiz side is striking, and it is entered by a well-shaded *alameda*. The town is well built; the streets, though winding, are wider than those of Cadiz, and have a good paved footpath; they are also well lighted. Some of the houses, Mr. Jacob says, are splendid. The parish-church of Santiago, built in the year 1603, is a fine pile of Gothic architecture; the churches of *San Mateo* and *San Marco* are also handsome; but the finest eccle-

* See Southey's Roderick, vol. i. p. 4, and *note*. Its ancient name, we know not on what authority, is stated to have been Chrysus. Some of the early writers assert, that the Romans gave it the classic name of Lethe. It is more probable that the name is altogether Arabic.

siastical edifice is that of *San Miguel*, the tower of which is "an excellent specimen of the Greco-Roman," and the altar is peculiarly beautiful. There are no pictures or statues deserving of notice. The Roman walls are in good preservation; they divide the new from the old city, and are so thick that the wine-merchants have excavated cellars in them. The population of the city, including the *pueblo* or township, is stated by Mr. Jacob, in 1809, at 40,000 souls. The *pueblo* is very extensive, but thinly inhabited, consisting chiefly of scattered farms and vineyards, the owners of which, for the most part, reside in the city. It includes a tract of country forty-five miles in length and eighteen in breadth; yet, though as large as some counties in England, it contains (exclusively of the city) only 101 large farm-houses, 77 smaller ones, 555 houses attached to vineyards, 23 situated in olive-grounds, and 55 in orchards. "Such," remarks Mr. Jacob, "is the state of population in one of the best-peopled districts of Andalusia, and perhaps in the finest climate and the richest soil in Europe. Every thing has been done by nature; but the institutions of the Government and the indolence of the inhabitants have effected nothing to improve the advantages she has bestowed." M. Bourgoing, who, in 1793, travelled from Cadiz to Algeziras, speaks in similar terms of the depopulated state of this fine district. "The distance from Chiclana to Algeziras," he says, "is fourteen leagues. I performed the journey on the same horse in one long summer's day, and found the country more thinly inhabited than perhaps any region which is not entirely uncultivated. I went, it is true, across the plains, avoiding circuitous roads which would have led through some villages. But the reader will scarcely believe me when I assure him, that, with

the exception of Vejer, which I perceived on my right, and Medina Sidonia, on my left, the only habitations I met with in this whole journey, were four or five groupes of the miserable huts called *cortijos*, in which labouring people reside during part of the year. For ten leagues out of these fourteen, the road leads through the domains of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, consisting entirely of corn-fields and pasturage. In no part of these is there the least vestige of a human habitation; not an orchard, a kitchen-garden, a ditch, or a stile. The great proprietor seems to reign there like the lion in the forest, by driving away all who would otherwise approach him. Instead of human inhabitants, I met with seven or eight numerous colonies of horned cattle and some troops of mares. On seeing them, unshackled by yoke or bridle, roving at pleasure over a space unbounded, as far as the eye can reach, by enclosure or barrier, the traveller is disposed to fancy himself in the first ages of the world, when the animals, in a state of independence, divided with man the empire of the earth, found every where their own property, and were not themselves the property of any person. Andalusia is thus deserted in almost all the districts devoted exclusively to the cultivation of corn and pasturage. It has been divided into immense possessions ever since the period of its conquest from the Moors. The principal Castilian noblemen who accompanied the victorious monarch, obtained grants of prodigious tracts in perpetuity, according to the fatal custom introduced throughout almost the whole monarchy. The extinction of male heirs in many families is continually aggravating this inconvenience. Rich heiresses transfer their ample portions into families not less opulent; so that, in time, the greater part of the

landed property in Spain may devolve to the few families that shall survive the others. As a single individual cannot manage such vast estates, they are let to different persons for the short term of three, or at most of five years. Another circumstance concurs with these pernicious customs to prevent the improvement of agriculture in Andalusia. The land is divided into three portions: one is cultivated, another remains fallow, and the third, which is set apart to feed the cattle of the farmer, is augmented by him as much as possible, that he may reap all the advantage he can from his short lease. This it is that gives an appearance of depopulation to extensive districts, susceptible of the highest cultivation. The first improvement to be made in the agriculture of Andalusia would be, therefore, to grant longer leases. The example of Catalonia, Galicia, and the Asturias should serve as a lesson."*

The immediate neighbourhood of Xeres is famous for its vineyards. The reader may not be aware that, under the disguise of the Spanish orthography, this is no other than the city of *Sherry*, which gives name to the well-known white-wine, the rival, at English

* Bourgoing, vol. iii. pp. 199—202. See also pp. 11—13 of this volume, and, for an account of the leases peculiar to Catalonia, p. 130. The same pernicious and ever-growing monopoly has contributed to the depopulation of the fertile plains of Lombardy and Tuscany. See Sismondi's *Tableau de l'Agriculture Toscane*, p. 289, and Chateauvieux's "Italy, its Agriculture," translated by Dr. Rigby, p. 79. Nothing can more strikingly illustrate the present state of agriculture and population in Spain, than the fact, that Andalusia, the granary of Spain, which exported wheat under the Romans, now furnishes an insufficient supply for its own consumption. In 1787, the wheat imported was little less than 1,500,000 *fanegas* (each nearly a cwt.) of which half came from Africa, 85,000 *fanegas* from America, and the rest from Naples, Sicily, and Sardinia.—TOWNSEND, vol. ii. p. 421.

tables, of that of Madeira. The quantity annually made in this place, Mr. Jacob informs us, was about 40,000 pipes, of which only 15,000 were exported, and about half of this quantity (between 7 and 8,000 pipes) were sent to England. The wine, when new, sells at from ten to twelve pounds a pipe, but increases in value by age; and that which is sent to England is always mixed with brandy, which occasions a further augmentation of the price. Some sweet wines are also made in this neighbourhood, which are much valued by the natives, especially what is known here under the name of Tent. As neither staves nor iron hoops are manufactured in this part of Spain, the latter are sent from England, and the former are supplied by the United States of America.

About two miles from Xeres stands the most celebrated Carthusian monastery in Spain. The brotherhood are of noble families. The rule is so severe as to enjoin perpetual silence. The edifice is very magnificent, in the Gothic style, and the church is decorated with some fine sculptures and paintings: it was built in 1571. The gardens are very beautiful. Xeres has a collegiate chapter attached to it, and is the residence of a vicar-general of the archbishop of Seville. At a short distance from the monastery, the traveller passes the Guadalete by a bridge of nine arches, and enters the plain in which the Moors overthrew the Gothic monarchy. At four leagues from Xeres, in which space there does not occur a single hamlet, the bridge of Zuarzo joins the Isle of Leon to the mainland. This bridge is said to have been built by the Romans, but derives its present name from a Dr. Sanchez Zuarzo, by whom the modern bridge was erected or repaired, and who died in 1437. It is flanked with batteries, and defended by gun-boats,

being the only point connecting the island on which Cadiz stands with the Continent. Instead of going round by this bridge, the traveller may hire a bark, and descend the Guadalete to Puerto Santa Maria (*Menestei Portus*), pleasantly situated at the mouth of the river.* This town, which is the residence of the captain-general of Andalusia and of a vicar-general, is described by M. Peyron as one of the handsomest towns in Spain. The streets are wide, well paved, and clean, and contain some splendid-looking houses. The *Calle Ancha* (Broad Street) is a mile long, and full of shops of all kinds. The churches are remarkable only for a profusion of rich ornaments, distributed without taste. The town contains one parish church and eight convents. The average population is stated by Mr. Jacob at 12,000 inhabitants. There is a very beautiful *alameda* on the banks of the river, planted with orange-trees, interspersed with flowers and all sorts of fragrant shrubs. The springs of Puerto S. Maria are excellent and of great importance, as they furnish Cadiz with the only water fit to drink, which is sent across in boats; and the shipping in the bay depend upon them for their supply of fresh water. The distance is only between two and three leagues, but the bar at the mouth of the river is often very dangerous, and boats are frequently lost in passing. When the north wind prevails, they seldom venture out. The sailors, on reaching the bar, never fail to put up prayers on behalf of the souls in purgatory, which is followed by a collection for their

* The Guadalete, a little below where the road to Cadiz turns off, divides itself into two branches, one of which discharges itself into the bay at P. Santa Maria: the other, which is distinguished by the name of the Santi Petri, proceeds to Puerto Real.

benefit.* The view from the mole, of the bay, the shipping, and the city stretching into the ocean, Swinburne pronounces one of the most beautiful in the world. The first view of Cadiz is gained on reaching the top of a hill about half way between Xeres and Puerto S. Maria. It embraces the whole circumference of the bay, as if delineated on a map. The two points which form the entrance are clearly distinguishable, Fort San Sebastian on one side, and the town of Rota on the other.

"Fair Cadiz, rising on the dark blue sea,"

is right before you, and the narrow neck of land is seen, which connects the city with the Island of Leon, together with the irregular contour of the bay to La Caracca, Puerto Real, and Santa Maria.

CADIZ.

CADIZ occupies a small peninsula or promontory at the extremity of the long sandy isthmus which joins it to the Isle of Leon. Its form is nearly a square of a mile and a half. It seems designed for a place of strength. On the south side, the height and steepness of the shore render it inaccessible by sea. On the land side it is defended by two strong bastions.† To the north and east, several sand-

* M. Bourgoing says, that "the boatmen, whose interest it is to keep passengers in terror, for the purpose of laying them under contribution, never fail to exaggerate the danger, and at the moment when it is most imminent, repeat a prayer, which is afterwards made a pretext for begging something." The passage is generally performed in less than an hour.

† In 1762, to render the works which defend the city on the land side more difficult of access, "all the gardens and little villas on the beach were cleared away, and a dreary, sandy glacis was left in their room. They had expected an attack from the English during the late war; but," adds Swinburne, "it would be madness

banks and some very dangerous rocks prevent the approach of shipping; and it is protected on the east by the castle of San Felipe. The point which runs out toward the west, and which was called the World's End, is defended by Fort San Sebastian. No ground is left unoccupied, and as there is little room to spare, the houses are lofty, and the streets confined and gloomy. The *Plaza de San Antonio* is the only square that deserves that name, and this is very small; but, being surrounded with magnificent houses, and contrasted with the streets, all of which, except the *Calle Ancha*, are narrow, it has a handsome appearance, and is the principal resort of the inhabitants. "To the ladies it is the mall, to the merchants the exchange, and to the officers the parade." There is, however, a pleasant *alameda* close by the sea, where the inhabitants repair in the evening to enjoy the breeze; but the sea-air prevents the trees from thriving. The whole of the ramparts indeed, by which this "compact city" is surrounded, form a series of agreeable promenades, commanding a fine prospect of the bay and the country beyond. The sea breaking over the rocks in the stormy weather, has a very grand effect. "If the prospect to the ocean is solemn," says Swinburne, "that towards the main-land is animated in the highest degree. The men of war ride in the

in an enemy to attempt it on this side; and one is apt to think an immense sum has been lavished on these fortifications without any apparent necessity. The Spaniards are, however, warranted in their caution by the authority of history, for the Earl of Essex stormed Cadiz in 1596, by an assault on the land quarter." In 1626, an expedition was sent against Cadiz under Lord Wimbledon, but it terminated unsuccessfully, as did a subsequent attempt made by Sir George Rooke to seize it in 1702, for the Archduke Charles. It was bombarded in 1800 by the British, but was never taken till the late French invasion, when it was the ministry, rather than the garrison, that capitulated.

eastern bosom of the bay; lower down, the merchantmen are spread far and near; and close to the town, an incredible number of barks, of various shapes and sizes, cover the surface of the water, some moored and others in motion, carrying goods to and fro. The opposite shore is studded with white houses, and enlivened by the towns of Santa Maria, Puerto Real, and others; behind which, eastward, on a ridge of hills, stands Medina Sidonia, and further back rise the mountains of Granada. Westward, Rota closes the horizon, near which was anciently the island and city of Tartessus,* now covered by the sea; but at low water, some parts of the ruins are still to be discerned." The view on entering the bay also is extremely fine.

The peninsula, which is occupied by the city, appears to have been formerly much larger; and fragments of ruins are visible off the town, when the sea is smooth and the tide low, which are supposed to be the remains of the ancient city, or, according to some, of the celebrated temple of Hercules. That the sea in this quarter has, in the course of ages, gained considerably, while it has lost on the coast of Granada and Murcia, is indicated by the general appearance of the shore. At the time of the earthquake which demolished Lisbon, Nov. 1, 1775, the sea rose here in an extraordinary manner, and overflowed the country about Cadiz to a great extent.† Laborde supposes,

* Supposed to be the Tarshish of the Old Testament. See Calmet's Dict. Michaelis also places Tarshish in Spain; and an old writer (Festus Avienus) says that Cadiz bore that name:

> "*Hic Gadir urbs est, dicta Tartessus prius:*
> *Hic sunt columnæ pertinacis Herculis,*
> *Abila atque Calpe.*"

† The round tower at the extremity of the western point on which Fort San Sebastian is built, is believed to have saved the city, in the great earthquake of 1755, from being swept away by

that the imaginary remains of the temple or city are the wrecks left behind by that inundation. The origin of Cadiz is, of course, ascribed to the Phenicians, and under the Romans, Gades was a municipal city; but where the ancient city stood, is extremely doubtful. The temple of Hercules is placed by some at Conil, a small town within the Straits of Gibraltar, and by others at Puerto Real. The modern town has within comparatively a recent date attained its present importance. It was first made an episcopal city in the year 1264, in the reign of Alfonso the Wise, the see of Asidonia being transferred to this place: the diocese is small, containing only twenty-eight parishes. The Franciscans first settled themselves here in 1608. The mercantile wealth and consideration of Cadiz date from the year 1720. Prior to that period, the commerce of America had been for two centuries confined to Seville; but, in that year, this source of wealth was transferred to Cadiz, and at the same time, the duties on exports were lowered. Up to the year 1748, the whole trade was carried on by twenty-seven gal-

the fury of the waves. "The building proved sufficiently solid to withstand the shock, and break the immense volume of water that threatened destruction to the whole island. In the narrow part of the isthmus, the surge beat over with amazing impetuosity, and bore down all before it. Among others, the grandson of the famous tragic poet Racine strove in vain to escape by urging his horse to the utmost of his speed."—SWINBURNE, vol. i. p. 340. In the seventeenth century, it was found necessary to erect a rampart to protect the city from the force of the waves, but every year this dike required to be repaired. At length, in 1738, an artificial beach was planned, resting on large coffers, and sloping to the sea, against which the waves should spend their force. The work was finished in three years, and the benefit was sensibly felt; but in 1801, this embankment sustained considerable damage. The sea has receded on the contrary side, so that certain parts of the beach, over which ships formerly sailed, are now nearly dry.—See BOURGOING, vol. iii. pp. 155—7.

leons, and *flotas* to the number of about twenty-three; the former sailing annually to Porto Bello, the latter once in three years to Vera Cruz. As long as the court confined the trade of Peru to galleons, it gradually decreased, insomuch that, from employing 15,000 tons, it had sunk, in the year 1740, to less than 2,000. But no sooner had the Marquis de la Ensenada substituted register-ships in the place of galleons, to proceed directly by Cape Horn to the place of their destination, than the trade revived. In the year 1765, a further reduction of duties was made, and the trade to Yucatan and the windward islands was partially thrown open to all the provinces of Spain, except Biscay; and in 1778, at the remonstrances of Count Campomanes, the Government reluctantly abolished the remaining restrictions with the same exception. The inhabitants of Biscay, not being bound by the general laws of the Peninsula, could not, it was thought, be safely admitted to the enjoyment of this privilege, for which they possessed an ample compensation in the freedom of their ports. Cadiz, however, continued to be the chief emporium. The Guipuzcoa Company, chartered by Philip V. in 1728, used the ports of Cadiz and San Sebastian for their exclusive trade; and from 1770 to 1774, they imported 179,156 *fanegas* of cacao. In the year 1784, when the total value of exports to America was 4,348,078*l.*, Cadiz supplied 3,621,443*l.*, or more than three-fourths; and of the total imports from the colonies, amounting to 12,635,173*l.*, the proportion was still larger, being 11,287,921*l.** In 1776, the number of vessels that

* Of the exports, more than one half consisted of foreign produce. Next to Cadiz, the largest exports were from Malaga; then, from Barcelona, Santander, Corunna, Seville; but the imports of Corunna were eight times the value of the exports, and larger

entered the port was 949, of which 265 were French. In 1786, Mr. Townsend states the number of vessels engaged in the Cadiz trade at about 1,000, of which nearly a tenth were Spanish. In 1791, the number which entered the port was 1,010; viz. 180 English, 176 from Spanish America, 162 from other parts of Spain, 116 French, 104 Portuguese, 90 American, 80 Dutch, 41 Danish, 25 Swedish, 22 Ragusan, 6 Genoese, 2 Venetian, 1 Hamburgher, 1 Russian, 1 Imperial, and 1 from Manilla. In the course of the same year 105 vessels sailed for the colonies.* The foreign nations who had the greatest number of houses at Cadiz, were the Irish, the Flemings, the Genoese, and the Hamburghers: the latter were peculiarly favoured by their very ancient treaties with Spain. "Of all the commercial nations," says Bourgoing, "the English and the French have the fewest houses in Cadiz, but they nevertheless take a considerable share in the commerce of that city. Twenty years ago, there were at Cadiz upwards of fifty great French houses, divided into classes according to their estimated capital, among which were some of the first importance. Besides these great French mercantile houses, there were about thirty firms in the retail trade, who formed with the others a national society, which was always an object of jealousy to the Spaniards, and often of the persecutions of the agents of Government. This society had its funds, its meetings, and privileges, and sometimes assembled to consider

than those of all the other ports, except Cadiz. Not quite a fourth of the total imports was merchandise, and the rest consisted of specie and jewels.—See TOWNSEND's *Spain*, vol. ii. pp. 415, 16.

* In 1792, the exports to the Indies from Cadiz, amounted to 276 millions of reals, and the imports exceeded 700 millions.—BOURGOING, vol. iii. p. 193.

the interests of its commerce under the auspices of the consul-general of its nation. Cadiz contained nearly the same number of French milliners, and at least one hundred French mechanics of different professions. At the present time (1795), there are not more than four or five French houses in that city." The expulsion of the French had been occasioned by the political revolutions. The general commerce of Cadiz had not, however, sensibly diminished. "Cadiz," continues M. Bourgoing, "is so advantageously situated, so opulent, in such complete possession of the direct trade with Spanish America, that it has no occasion for a long time to fear the competition of any of the other ports. Those of Catalonia and Valencia, however, derived, especially in 1789, a great advantage from their situation. The Government had recently directed that at least one-third of the cargo of every vessel bound to America should consist of national commodities. The above-mentioned ports, having an opportunity of exporting wine, brandy, silks, and printed cottons, seemed for some time to obtain a superiority over Cadiz in this respect. But, as the manufacturers of Catalonia and Valencia could not continue to furnish such large supplies, or give such long credit, the merchants of Cadiz have regained their former advantages.*.....A proof that its mercantile prosperity had not fallen off (in 1802),

* One of the most extensive and least hazardous branches of speculation, was the exportation of foreign linens to America: these consisted of those of Britany, Silesia, and Ireland. In the years 1792 and 1793, out of 164 millions of reals, the total amount of foreign commodities exported, the foreign silks amounted to eight or nine millions, woollens to twenty-two or three, and linens to upwards of one hundred millions. The total amount of native commodities was about one hundred and twenty millions, of which silks were one half.

is, that this city then contained upwards of 300 mercantile houses, among which were much fewer foreign houses than formerly."* To this monopoly, Cadiz was indebted for its political ascendancy. "The American settlements," says Mr. Jacob, "may be more properly considered as colonies belonging to this city, than to the kingdom of Spain. Almost every thing from America centres here; and the principal imports from the other ports of Europe are only brought to this place to be shipped afterwards to the transatlantic ports. The merchants of Cadiz may therefore be properly considered as the factors of the manufacturers of England, Germany, and France, on the one hand, and of the consumers of their manufactures on the other. In the same manner, they are factors for the growers of colonial produce in America, and for the consumers of it in Europe."†

* In 1795, however, M. Bourgoing states, that Cadiz contained more than 110 proprietors of ships, and about 670 commercial houses, exclusive of retail dealers and shopkeepers, and of the French who had been obliged by the war to leave the place.

† The war with England, the battle of Trafalgar in 1805, and the subsequent blockade of the port, occasioned a total suspension of the trade of Cadiz for a time; but in 1809, when Mr. Jacob visited Spain, things were recovering their former aspect. Mr. Semple passed through Cadiz in October 1805, a few days after the battle of Trafalgar had thrown an air of sadness over the whole town. In the bay, a Spanish seventy-four, the San Rafael, was lying broadside, bilged, on the rocks, the waves breaking over her; a large French ship was stranded, with all her masts gone; and in the centre, towards Cadiz, lay a groupe of five or six vessels, bored with cannot-shot, and more or less dismasted. "Ten days after the battle, they were still employed in bringing ashore the wounded; and spectacles were hourly displayed at the wharfs and through the streets, sufficient to shock every heart not hardened to scenes of human suffering. When by the carelessness of the boatmen and the surging of the sea, the boats struck against the stone piers, a horrid cry, which pierced the soul, arose from the mangled

This brief sketch of the history of Cadiz, up to the period of the revolution, will throw light on the selfish and arbitrary proceedings of the Junta of Cadiz (who for a short period assumed the reins of power on the dispersion of the Central Junta) in respect to the colonies, and for the fatal policy which was subsequently persisted in under the same influence by the Constitutional Government. "The Junta of Cadiz," says Mr. Jacob, "with a cunning regard to its monopoly, detained every vessel bound to the western world, till they supposed their own representation of the occurrences would be made public there. Their precautions, however, were unavailing; the intelligence reached America in its real colours; and the inhabitants, from one end of that vast continent to the other, saw the necessity of providing for themselves the means of government, and not depending on those whom chance, rather than merit, had placed

wretches on board. On the top of the pier, the scene was affecting. The wounded were being carried away to the hospitals in every shape of human misery, while crowds of Spaniards either assisted or looked on with signs of horror. Meanwhile, their companions who had escaped unhurt, walked up and down with folded arms and downcast eyes, while women sat upon heaps of arms, broken furniture, and baggage, with their heads bent beneath their knees. I learned that every hospital in Cadiz was already full, and that convents and churches were forced to be appropriated to the reception of the remainder. If, leaving the harbour, I passed through the town to the point, I still beheld the terrible effects of the battle. As far as the eye could reach, the sandy side of the isthmus bordering on the Atlantic, was covered with masts and yards, the wrecks of ships, and here and there the bodies of the dead. The portions of floating wreck were visible from the ramparts; yet, not a boat durst venture out to examine or endeavour to tow them in, such were the apprehensions of the enemy that still filled their minds.... *Mais, après tout,* (said some French officers at the public table,) *leur feu étoit terrible.*"—SEMPLE'S *Journey through Spain,* vol. i. pp. 154—60.

at the head of affairs. The Regency, though acknowledged as the supreme power by the people of Spain, by their British allies, and even by the Junta of Cadiz, was soon taught that it was subordinate to that corporation of monopolists. A law was decreed by the Regents, granting to America the privileges to which it was justly entitled: the decree was ordered to be printed previously to its promulgation, and the jealousy of the Junta was thereby kindled to fury. The threats they held out so operated on the Regents, that the decree was disavowed, and the secretary who, by their order, had delivered it to the printer, was given up to the vengeance of the Junta, who immured him in a prison. Having thus subdued the Regents to their authority on the subject which occupied their principal views, they were disposed to leave them in possession of the shadow of power, lest, if the Cortes should assemble and succeed them, they might be found a less tractable body. Every obstacle was thrown in the way of assembling the Cortes, both by the Regents and the Junta of Cadiz; and when such a number of deputies had collected as was sufficient to form a quorum, they were afraid to assemble, till the assurance of support from the British minister, and of protection from the British garrison, convinced them that they might meet without fear of molestation. When they did assemble, they talked in a tone of high authority, displaced the Regents, appointed others in their place, debated and issued proclamations in favour of the freedom of the press and the liberty of America, and affected to display a superiority to the narrow views and selfish prejudices of the city of Cadiz. But, as the Convention of France yielded to the Commune of Paris, so did the Cortes of Spain submit to the

Junta of Cadiz. The decree in favour of the liberty of the press terminated in appointing licensers from their own body; and that for giving freedom to America, was so frittered away by subsequent regulations, as to produce no effect beyond that of convincing the Americans, that no relief would be afforded them by any government under the influence of the city of Cadiz."* To the imbecility of the Central Junta, the selfish and narrow views of the Junta of Cadiz, and the timid conduct of the Cortes, this writer correctly attributes the commencement of the revolutionary struggle in the western hemisphere, which has so happily terminated in the independence of the Spanish colonies. The prevalence of the same illiberal views in the Constitutional Government, by disgusting and alienating their best ally, has led to the ruin of the cause of freedom in Spain.

The commencement of the patriotic insurrection at Cadiz, in 1808, was stained by the murder of Solano, the governor, who was suspected of favouring the French cause. This was the act of an infuriated populace.† But in 1820, this ill-fated city was made the scene of a still more sanguinary and atrocious transaction. On the day that the constitution was to be proclaimed at Cadiz, when the square of San Antonio was thronged with thousands who had crowded into the city to witness the spectacle, all animated with the patriotic enthusiasm, the troops under Generals Freyre and Campana, who formed the garrison, were marched

* Jacob, pp. 403, 4.

† Solano appears to have been a high-minded man, and had honourably acquitted himself as governor; but his conduct on this occasion was equivocal, if not traitorous. — See JACOB'S *Travels*, p. 25. SOUTHEY'S *Pen. War*, vol. i. p. 275.

out, and ordered to fire on the people. In the massacre that ensued, neither age nor sex was spared; those who could not escape, were butchered on the spot; and the whole of the night and part of the next day were devoted to plunder. The number of killed and wounded exceeded 500. On the following day (March 11), Campana, in a general order, returned thanks to the brave and loyal troops for their brilliant military conduct; and Freyre transmitted to the ministry an account of the massacre, in which he expressed his high satisfaction, in similar terms, at the affectionate proof which the troops had given of their fidelity to their king.*

Neither the limits nor the design of this work will admit of our pursuing the narrative of the events of the ensuing five years; but the circumstances of the last investment of Cadiz by the French army, claim to be briefly adverted to. The whole of the forces of the invading army had united at Truxillo on the 11th of June, 1823, and were marching towards Merida, when the Cortes deemed it necessary to retreat to Cadiz, carrying with them the reluctant king. At this time, Cadiz was not provisioned for a month, the fortifications were by no means in complete repair, and the navy by which it might have been defended, was reduced almost to nothing; but a short time sufficed to secure the whole Isle of Leon against an immediate attack. The first measure on the part of the French was, to establish a land-blockade by a chain

* Blaquiere's Historical Review of the Span. Revol. pp. 318—28. It is believed, that a battalion made up of deserters and liberated galley-slaves were the loyal instruments employed on this occasion, and that they were liberally supplied with brandy to fit them for their business. The number killed would, it is said, have been much greater, but for the drunken state of the perpetrators.

of posts along the winding coast, from San Lucar to Chiclana. On the 16th of August, the Duke d'Angouleme arrived before Cadiz, and took up his head-quarters at Puerto Santa Maria. Immense preparations had been made for prosecuting the siege, and the army was raised to 30,000 men, the flower of the French troops. On the 18th, a flag of truce was sent by the Duke d'Angouleme, inviting Ferdinand to repair to the French camp. This attempt at negotiation failed, and the enemy immediately commenced their operations, directing their first attack against the small peninsula nearly opposite Cadiz, called, from a fort erected on it, the Trocadero, and forming, with the opposite promontory, called the Puntales, the narrow strait which affords an entrance into the inner harbour. This point, therefore, commands the naval approaches to the city; and the Spaniards, aware of its importance, had made the greatest exertion to put it in a state of defence. A cut of 200 feet broad and four feet deep had been formed across the isthmus, by which it was completely insulated; and the interior was fortified by a chain of strong redoubts, garrisoned by about 2,000 of their best troops, and flanked by gun-boats. On the 19th, the trenches were opened by the French; and on the 24th, the second parallel was commenced, notwithstanding the uninterrupted fire and occasional sallies of the besieged. On the 29th, the parallels were completed; and on the next day, at day-break, the French made an unsuccessful assault. On the night of the 31st, fourteen columns, the *elite* of the guards, advanced under cover of complete darkness, passed the trenches, and had formed in front of the canal before the alarm was given. A heavy fire was then opened upon them, but the French troops pushed across the canal, charged, and in fifteen

minutes were masters of the nearest batteries. The Spanish artillerymen stood to their guns, and were almost entirely cut to pieces. The position on the canal being thus turned, and the rest of the French army rapidly following, the Spaniards were obliged to abandon the whole line of their batteries, and to betake themselves to an entrenched position round the mill of Guerra. At day-break, this post was attacked by the French, and carried,—a great part of the Spaniards being made prisoners. The loss of the garrison and of a large quantity of the cannon and military stores, was not the worst effect of the capture of the Trocadero. The dismay which it spread among both the soldiers and the people, and the impression to which it gave rise, that the French were irresistible, contributed to hasten the fall of Cadiz.*

As soon as the French had obtained full possession of the Trocadero, they lost no time in erecting batteries, and in commencing a fire against the opposite shore. The flames caught a magazine on the Puntales, and caused some injury; but at Cadiz, being two miles distant, this occasioned no alarm. It was, however, deemed expedient to make another overture for negotiation on the 5th of September; but the stern determination was announced, on the part of the duke, that no armistice or negotiation could take place on any other basis than the liberation of the king. A pause now ensued in offensive operations till the 17th, when, on the arrival of a new admiral, Duperre, a maritime bombardment, which had been for some time in preparation, was opened on Fort Santi Petri,

* Campbell has embalmed the memory of the brave patriots who fell in this engagement, in his noble ode:

"Brave men, who at the Trocadero fell
Beside your cannon, conquer'd not, though slain."

situated on a little island at the southern extremity of the Isle of Leon; this soon capitulated. On the 23d, the French admiral succeeded in bombarding Cadiz by a flotilla consisting of six bomb-vessels and five gun-boats, stationed nearly a mile from the place. About two hundred bombs are supposed to have reached the city, but without doing any serious damage, or producing any decisive result. After the bombardment had lasted two hours and a half, a change of wind, it is said, obliged the French to quit their position. It was now made a chief object to effect a landing on the Isle of Leon, at its southern point, opposite to Chiclana, and the head-quarters were transferred thither. Cadiz, however, might yet have held out; and had any of the true Catalonian spirit animated the garrison, which exhibited itself at Barcelona in 1714, and at Gerona in 1808, the French would have found it no easy conquest. But symptoms of panic and mutiny began to display themselves among the troops; and the commander-in-chief, on the 24th, submitted a memorial to the ministry, in which he announced the desperate posture of affairs, recommending that all the Spanish troops should be withdrawn within the fortification of the Cortadura. A secret sitting of the Extraordinary Cortes was now summoned, at which no decision was come to, that august body being agreed in nothing but the determination not to commit themselves. At length, an oblique and equivocal permission was given to ministers, to follow the course they found themselves reduced to the necessity of proposing; viz. that Ferdinand, with the royal family, should quit Cadiz, and transport himself whither it might seem best to him. A last attempt was made to stipulate with the French, that the Cortes should hold Cadiz for a certain time;

but this, as might have been anticipated, was peremptorily refused; and on the 1st of October, Ferdinand landed at the French camp. On the same day, he issued a decree, retracting every pledge he had given, and annulling all the acts of the constitutional government from March 7 preceding to that day. This was followed by a series of decrees breathing the most unbounded and almost insane fury against all who had been in any way connected with the subverted system. Nevertheless, the mandate of the king to deliver up Cadiz to the French, was immediately obeyed; and on the 4th, all the forts were in the hands of the foreign garrison. The members of the Cortes and of the former government had, in the mean time, eluded the vengeance of the absolute king, by escaping to Gibraltar, and thence to England.

Throughout this brief and inglorious campaign, inglorious alike to both parties, we look in vain, unless in the conduct of the unfortunate Riego, for any indication of the national feeling and spirit similar to what was manifested in the peninsular war. To French gold, rather than to French valour, has been ascribed, probably with some justice, the facility with which a whole nation was thus conquered in six months. But it is, at the same time, obvious, that the grand charm which had united this most loyal of nations as one man against Napoleon, on his depriving them of their idiot king, was now broken. The French entered Spain professedly as the deliverers of the captive monarch from a sacrilegious faction. In the mind of a Spaniard, the words king and country are synonymous; nor had they, as a nation, any idea of patriotism but as identified with loyalty. It is evident, too, that the military leaders never cordially submitted to the democratic government, nor did the

Cortes command the confidence of the nation. The temporary appointment of a Regency was a bold and necessary measure, but it shocked every hereditary prejudice in the mind of a Spaniard. The weakness of the executive, hampered and fettered by a punctilious and untractable senate, was, no doubt, one grand cause of the subversion of the constitutional government. The presence of the king contributed to paralyse the decisions of the ministry; and it is to their honour, that no considerations of personal safety could tempt them to violate the sacred person of majesty, or to visit upon their sovereign the punishment of a traitor. They had the most perfidious and vindictive of tyrants in their power, and they acted as good Spaniards in letting him loose again upon the nation whose best blood he had shed. But, above all, the alienation and withdrawment of England, the consequence, at least in part, of the adoption, on the part of the constitutional government, of the politics of Cadiz, left the ministry without consideration in the eyes of foreign powers, and deprived them, in the crisis, at once of resources, hope, and energy.

We return from this digression to the accounts which modern travellers have furnished of the former state of this once flourishing city. Swinburne, who visited Cadiz in 1776, gives by no means a pleasing description of the place. Its population, he says, was then estimated at 144,000 inhabitants, of whom 12,000 were French, and at least as many more, Italians. Every commercial nation had a consul resident here, and those of England and France were the only ones not allowed to have any concern in trade. Foreigners were not permitted to export goods to America; but the prohibition was notoriously evaded by shipping the articles in the names of

Spanish houses. The stir during the last months of the stay of the *flota* was prodigious. The streets of Cadiz, at this period, were ill-paved, insufferably filthy and offensive, and overrun with countless swarms of rats. "This small, populous, and well-enclosed city," says this Traveller, "has the misfortune of being under worse regulations of police than any place in Europe. All the winter, street robberies and burglaries have been frequent, and no effectual steps have been taken to prevent the disorder." Such was the state of the administration of the laws, that when a native was apprehended for the most enormous offence, it was next to impossible to procure a sentence against him: as long as he had a groat to spend in prison, or a friend to intercede on his behalf, the *alcalde* would never bring him to trial. The state of society was by no means "brilliant:" the different nations kept much to themselves, and even during the carnival, neither balls nor masquerades were allowed.

When Mr. Townsend visited Cadiz, ten years after, it had declined in population, but considerable improvements had taken place in other respects. He states the number of inhabitants at not more than 65,987; "although ten years ago," he adds, "it is said to have contained 85,000, besides above 20,000 people who entered daily from the sea and from the adjacent country." This, however, is not less than 40000 below Swinburne's estimate. "For their pavements," says Mr. Townsend, "for the cleanliness of their streets, for a well-regulated police, for some of their best edifices, and for many wise institutions, they have been indebted to their late governor, Count O'Reilly. Previously to his appointment, the city was remarkable for filth and nastiness; and, from the mistaken clemency of

Bucarelli, the former governor,* robberies were frequently committed, murders were not uncommon, and such was the insolence of thieves, that they gave public warning to the inhabitants not to make a noise when they should be stopped." At the period of Mr. Townsend's visit, the commercial prosperity of the city had received a severe shock in consequence of the withdrawment of the monopoly of the colonial trade, which had led to extensive speculations, and the necessary result, a glutted market and mercantile failures. "For the pleasures of social intercourse," this Traveller says, "I did not meet with any city more agreeable than this. As all nations are here assembled within narrow limits, by their mutual intercourse they soften each others' manners; and as, notwithstanding the late shock, commerce flourishes in a degree, with its never-failing attendants, wealth and hospitality, a stranger may pass away his time with the highest satisfaction." M. Bourgoing bears the same honourable testimony to the public-spirited and successful exertions of this enlightened governor, with this exception, that in 1785, when he first visited Cadiz, assassinations continued to be very frequent; and he adds, "they have not since become less common." "Under the active administration of O'Reilly,"

* The Conde de Xerena Bucarelli was governor at the time of Swinburne's visit. He was said to have made a vow to shed *no* blood during his regency; and this "cruel clemency" had emboldened the robbers to take the singularly audacious step, referred to by Mr. Townsend, of posting up an advertisement cautioning all persons whatever to refrain from resistance, that their plunderers might not be reduced to the disagreeable necessity of using the poniard. The striking change which had taken place only ten years after, shews the absolute power of the governor, as well as the immense importance of a well-regulated police. See p. 174 for an account of a similar revolution at Alicant.

he says, "the old houses were pulled down, and gave place to new houses regularly built. The streets were paved, made straighter, and constantly kept clean. The vacant places were covered with habitations: he may even be reproached with excess of economy in respect to ground. He endeavoured also to extend the city by gaining land from the sea. The space occupied by the custom-house and the adjacent buildings was obtained from that element, but at a period anterior to his administration. He extended the cultivation of the isthmus on the side of the high-road to the Isle of Leon; he even formed a garden as agreeable as the soil, which is wholly sandy, would permit; and his example being imitated, the road, for a quarter of a league from the land gate, was bordered by similar enclosures. It was probable that in time these environs would form a kind of suburb; and at the distance of a full quarter of a league from the city, a church had already been erected for those who resided in that neighbourhood. But this creation did not long survive the administration of its author, and the sand has partly resumed its empire in this tract, although the desert, which before his time disgraced the approach to Cadiz, has receded to the distance of half a league from the land gate. Cadiz is further indebted to him for the repair of the road leading to the Isle of Leon.* He had also formed a plan for bringing fresh water to Cadiz from the heights of

* This work was committed to the superintendence of M. du Bournial, a French engineer, whom O'Reilly invited from France, to employ him in his military school at Santa Maria. "This road which, on leaving Cadiz, is a quarter of a league in width, gradually grows narrower, till, at the distance of a league, the sea at flood-tide washes the foot of the causeway, which resembles a mole thrown by the hand of man across the abysses of the ocean. Du Bournial raised this road, and made it shorter and more solid."

Medina Sidonia, a distance of eleven leagues; he had calculated that the expense would not exceed two millions of piastres, and in August 1785, had received subscriptions to the amount of more than half that sum. Du Bournial, the engineer, had surveyed and taken the levels of the whole distance, and had finished all the plans. He had discovered the track of an ancient canal constructed by the Romans for the same purpose, the bed of which would have been rendered useful for the new project. This splendid design met, at the time, with great opposition. The work was nevertheless begun, but not more than half a league was completed, when a stop was put to it by the disgrace of O'Reilly; and the inhabitants are still obliged to procure their water from Puerto Santa Maria."*

In 1799, Cadiz contained, according to M. Bourgoing, a population of 75,000 souls,—an increase, apparently, of 9,000, or not quite a seventh, upon Mr. Townsend's estimate. In the following year, however, a virulent epidemic, the true yellow fever, made its appearance, being imported by the Dauphin corvette; and between the 12th of August and the 31st of October, it attacked 47,350 persons, of whom 7,195 died, exclusive of the troops who had recently arrived for the defence of the coast, and who lost 3000

* The only water in Cadiz is that of a few wells, which is brackish and unwholesome, and the rain-water collected in cisterns. The only water drinkable is that which is brought from Santa Maria, for which the inhabitants pay, on the average, 96,000 piastres annually, or 20,000*l.* sterling. In dry seasons, the quantity is not sufficient to supply their wants. This serious inconvenience materially affects the strength of the place, as recent events have proved; and even had O'Reilly's plan been realised, it would have been in the power of an invading army to cut off the supply of fresh water.

men.* In the months of September and October, when the fever was at its height, from 140 to 170 persons died at Cadiz every day; and it committed dreadful ravages at Santa Maria, Isla de Leon, and Rota. The contagion extended to Chiclana, Puerto Real, and San Lucar; it even spread to Xeres and Seville, and by degrees over the whole province. A cordon was placed along the foot of the Sierra Morena, which it was not deemed safe to withdraw till the following spring. No symptoms of contagious fever were again observed till towards the end of the summer of 1804, when the yellow-fever (here called *vomito negro*) again broke out at Malaga, and extended its ravages westward as far as this city. It was here much less destructive, however, and of shorter duration, than the pestilence of 1800. The greatest mortality amounted for a few days only to 70 or 72 per day.† "These two calamities following so closely upon each other, together with the considerable emigration which they occasioned, at first seemed to have produced a great diminution in the population of Cadiz; it appeared to be reduced to 50,000 souls. But, on

* Foreigners and persons recently arrived, were those to whom this epidemic proved most fatal, and it attacked men with greater virulence than women; a fact which has been observed with regard to the *vomito prieto* at Vera Cruz.

† At Gibraltar, in the month of October, 120 persons died daily; and out of a population of 16,000 civil and military, the mortality was 6,000. At Malaga, it swept off above a fourth of the population; in other places, above a third—(See pp. 267, 271, of this volume). It extended its ravages along the coast of the Mediterranean, to Carthagena, Alicant, the vicinity of Barcelona, and even to Leghorn, in lat. 43° 33′. Of those to whom it proved fatal at Cadiz, M. Bourgoing was informed, that the men were in proportion to the females as 48 to 1. See for an account of the *vomito prieto*, or endemic fever of Vera Cruz, and the *calentura amarilla*, or epidemic yellow fever, Mod. Trav. *Colombia*, pp. 108—111; and *Mexico*, vol. i. pp. 221—4.

the cessation of the alarm, the return of the emigrants and other causes rapidly raised it to nearly the same point at which it stood in 1799; and so early as the end of 1804, it was estimated at the lowest at 70,000 souls."

In 1813 and 1815, this terrible disease again made its appearance on this coast. It has visited Cadiz, in all, not fewer than ten times.* Both in 1810 and in 1813, it appeared in a slight degree at Gibraltar, but was checked in its progress by vigilant measures of police. In 1821, however, it broke out at Barcelona, soon after the arrival of some ships from the Havannah; and more than 20,000 inhabitants of that city fell victims to it in the course of four months, owing chiefly to the neglect of precautionary measures, occasioned by the absurd speculations of certain anti-contagionists.† It appeared at the same time in several parts of the Mediterranean, among other places at Marseilles, but in none in which it could not be traced to the Havannah infection.

Political events, however, have since had a far more disastrous effect on the prosperity of this city. Since the separation of the colonies from the mother country, its commerce has declined, and its population has been constantly diminishing, many of the inhabitants transferring their establishments to Santa Maria, Puerto Real, San Lucar, and other small towns on the coast. At one period, indeed, during the siege by the French, it is said to have con-

* Sir G. Blane's Select Dissertations, (Lond. 1822) p. 284. Its first introduction into Europe was at Lisbon in 1723, probably from Brazil, and it has never since appeared there. It next shewed itself at Cadiz in 1732, three years after its first appearance in the Spanish colonies. It returned in 1733, again in 1744, 1746, and 1764, and not again till 1800; nor was it known in all that interval, in any other part of Europe, except once at Malaga in 1741.

† Ibid. p. 293.

tained within its walls, reckoning the refugees and foreign and domestic troops, upwards of 300,000 souls. But this arose from circumstances altogether extraordinary. Deprived of that commerce from which it derived its wealth, it is not likely ever to regain its former importance. No longer the emporium of the Indies, this once proud city, that for a short interval ruled the Peninsula,

"First to be free, and last to be subdued,"

is probably doomed to add its name to the long list of maritime cities which have risen into greatness on the changeful shores of the Mediterranean, and then, deserted by that fickle tide of prosperity, of which the shifting waters are so striking an emblem, have sunk into insignificance and comparative desolation.*

The public buildings of Cadiz have few claims to attention. There are two cathedrals. The old one is remarkable only for its rich furniture and treasures. The new one, commenced in 1722, and which had cost, in 1769, upwards of four millions and a half of reals, raised by a per centage on colonial imports, still remains unfinished. It is described by Mr. Townsend as a vast pile, with large and lofty domes and many well-proportioned pillars; yet, the whole effect is heavy and disgusting, owing to its being loaded with a very projecting cornice. "All who view this building," he adds, "are struck with the absurdity of these

* The state of things in April 1823, is thus described by an intelligent observer. "Since the separation of the American colonies from the mother country, the commerce of Cadiz has declined very materially; indeed, speaking in comparison with its former activity, it may be said to have perished. I saw no more than fifty vessels in the bay, which, in the days of her commercial greatness, was seldom beheld without a thousand or fifteen hundred. The population is lessening every day."—QUIN'S *Visit to Spain*, p. 328.

preposterous ornaments; yet, the architect wants resolution to retract them. It is not, however, impossible, that the waves may wipe away this disgrace to taste, as they have begun their devastations on that side, and not more than ten feet are interposed between that building and the sea." Swinburne describes the top of this church when seen at sea, as resembling "the carcass of some huge monster cast upon its side, rearing its gigantic blanched ribs high above the buildings of the city." Beneath the cathedral is a "subterraneous temple" of the same extent, in which, during the siege, numbers of the inhabitants took shelter from the bombs. The church of San Antonio, "designed as an ornament to the beautiful square of that name, serves only to disfigure it." It was built out of gratitude for the services rendered by the statue of the saint in the plague of 1648. In the church of the Capuchins is an *Ecce Homo* by Murillo, and some other good paintings, as also in that of the Augustins. The garden of the Franciscan monastery is famed for possessing a great vegetable curiosity, the dragon's-blood tree, the only one in Europe. Adjoining the cathedral, is the *Plaza de Toros*, for the bull-feasts,—a mean, wooden building, but commodious within. There is also a neat theatre. "A foreigner, on his arrival at Cadiz," remarks Bourgoing, "never fails to inquire for the *Lonja* or exchange, and learns with astonishment that it has none." It has already been mentioned, that the *plaza* is made to answer this purpose. The new custom-house is an extensive and handsome edifice: Swinburne styles it "a vile piece of architecture."* The old Italian opera-house

* Here the regency, and latterly the king resided during his detention at Cadiz.

has been converted into a suite of coffee-rooms, called the *Camorra*. The only other public buildings deserving notice are, three hospitals; an alms-house for forty-seven widows, founded by a Turkey merchant, born at Damascus, and resident at Cadiz, where he died in 1756; and the *hospicio* or general workhouse,—an admirably conducted institution, by means of which O'Reilly succeeded in effectually suppressing mendicity at Cadiz, as Pacheco did at Alicant.* The barracks are described as a superb edifice for strength and convenience. The private dwelling-houses are built with their windows looking into a court, beneath which is generally a cistern; and each dwelling is capable of military defence. The best houses have brick floors, and stone or marble stairs. The roofs are flat, and covered with cement. The ground-floor is generally occupied with warehouses, and no attention is paid to the vestibule, which consequently becomes a receptacle for every description of nuisance. Neither coaches nor carts are much in use, most of the streets being too narrow to admit of them: the *gallegos* (porters) move the heaviest articles by the help of poles. At their tables, and in the furniture of their houses, the Spanish inhabitants are generally characterised by frugality: it is in their dress chiefly, that their wealth displays itself in the form of luxury.

As to the state of society in Cadiz in a moral point of view, it appears from all accounts to have corresponded but too faithfully to the description given of it by Childe Harold as the modern Paphos:

> "From morn till night, from night still startled morn
> Peeps blushing on the revel's laughing crew,

* See, for some interesting details, Townsend, vol. ii. p. 374; and Bourgoing, vol. iii. p. 149.

The song is heard, the rosy garland worn;
Devices quaint, and frolics ever new
Tread on each other's kibes. A long adieu
He bids to sober joy that here sojourns:
Nought interrupts the riot, though, in lieu
Of true devotion, monkish incense burns,
And love and prayer unite, or rule the hour by turns." *

"Those enjoyments, however," says Bourgoing, "which result from intellectual cultivation, would here be sought in vain. Pleasure, in the strictest sense of the word, absorbs all the physical faculties, and commercial calculations, all the powers of the mind. The one is accounted for and excused by the climate: the other is the result of a concurrence of circumstances to which Cadiz principally owes its importance." The climate is generally delightful, and few places are deemed more healthy. But when the *solano* blows, an easterly wind which comes over the scorched plains of Africa, "all the passions are inflamed, and during its prevalence, the inhabitants, who are most irritable, commit every species of excess."† Laborde is lavish of his epithets on the beauty, grace, and bewitching manners of the ladies of Cadiz, who are famed to excel, in gait and gesture, even the proud dames of Madrid. The Andalusian women, generally, are by all Spaniards acknowledged to excel in engaging manners; and

"None through their cold disdain are doom'd to die."

"The women here," says Mr. Jacob, "possess nearly as much liberty as Mary Wolstonecraft would have desired; but I believe the cause of morals and domestic happiness derives no great advantage from this independence of the female sex. So far as I can

* Childe Harold, canto i. st. 76. &c.
† Townsend, vol. ii. p. 439.

learn, the state of education here is intolerably bad, and that of the women is, if possible, more defective than that of the men."*

The bay of Cadiz, reckoned one of the finest in the world, is a basin of from ten to twelve leagues in circumference, open to the sea towards the north-east, and every where else protected by mountains. The entrance is about 500 fathoms in breadth. Cadiz is in lat. 36° 32′ N., long. 6° 17′ 22″ W., 60 miles S.W. of Seville, and 45 N.W. of Gibraltar. At a distance, says Sir John Carr, the city, from the whiteness of the houses, not a little resembles a fleet of vessels drying their sails; and on a nearer approach, it has a dazzling appearance, "like a city built of ivory." The bay being of such extent, different places have been assigned to vessels according to their destination. Facing the city, at a certain distance, is the anchorage for ships coming from European ports. More to the eastward, in the channel of the Trocadero, the Indiamen are laid up and unrigged. At the extremity of this channel, stands the handsome village of Puerta Real, and on its banks are the magazines, arsenals,

* The author of Doblado's Letters, himself a Sevillian (the Rev. J. Blanco White), thus speaks of the manners of the Gaditanians: "Cadiz, though fast declining from the wealth and splendour to which she had reached during her exclusive privilege to trade with the colonies, is still one of the few towns in Spain, which, for refinement, can be compared with some of the second-rate in England. The people are hospitable and cheerful. The women, without being at all beautiful, are really fascinating. Some of the *tertulias*, or evening parties, which a simple introduction to the lady of the house entitles any one to attend daily, are very lively and agreeable. No stiffness of etiquette prevails: you may drop in when you like, and leave the room when it suits you. Singing to the guitar or the piano, is a very common resource at these meetings; but the musical acquirements of the Spanish ladies cannot bear the most distant comparison with those of the female amateurs in London." (p. 14.)

and dock-yards for merchantmen. The entrance of the Trocadero is defended by two forts, one called Matagordo, on the continent, and the other, Fort Luis, on an islet which is covered at high water. The line of fire of these two forts is crossed by that of one of the *Puntales* on the opposite shores. All vessels, therefore, are obliged to sail within reach of these batteries in passing from the great bay into that of the *Puntales*, at the bottom of which, near the magazines, are moored the unrigged ships of the royal navy. The vast space upon which these magazines are erected, and the possession of which the sea appears to dispute with the land, is washed to the west by the river Santi Petri (or San Pedro), and distinguished by the appellation of *La Carraca.** "To gain access to this place," M. Bourgoing says, "you must go to Isla de Leon,—a town nearly quite new, having been built about the middle of the last century, and which has rapidly grown to a prodigious size. In 1790, it contained 40,000 communicants. Its principal street is two miles long, and makes a handsome appearance, though the houses are decorated in bad taste. Isla de Leon has an air of cleanliness and opulence, a market abundantly supplied, and a spacious square. The Naval Academy has been removed hither from Cadiz, till the completion of the new edifice erecting in the new town of San Carlos, contiguous to La Carraca. The Island of Leon is separated from La Carraca by a basin 900 feet long and 600 broad, from which are cut two canals, the one running to La

* A *carraca* is a large and slow-sailing ship of burthen: how this name came to be given to the royal dock-yard, is not mentioned. Caracas, the name of the capital of Venezuela, and of some islands off the coast of Cumana, is derived from that of the aborigines.—See MOD. TRAV., *Colombia*, p. 102.

Carraca, and the other to the sea." The end of the island towards the continent is remarkably strong, both by nature and art, and may be considered as one of the principal defences of Cadiz. It is here that the *Santi Petri* is crossed by the *Puente de Zuarzo*, which is flanked with batteries, and defended by gun-boats. Isla de Leon has acquired interest from having since become for a short period the seat of government. In Dec. 1809, when Mr. Jacob visited it, it was inhabited chiefly by officers of the navy, and persons employed in the dock-yard; but the expected convocation of the Cortes had already raised the price of houses. It then contained between 40 and 50,000 inhabitants, and, from its extent, including San Carlos, seemed capable of holding double that number. "The streets," says this Traveller, "are wide, the houses large, and, like other Spanish towns, it displays a mixture of grandeur and poverty, quite characteristic of the nation. I visited the principal church, which is as elegantly decorated as the religious edifices in Spain usually are; but what principally attracted my attention was the repository for the dead, called the Pantheon. It is an open court, of an oval form, with a corridor built on arches, and supported by pillars; and in the walls, which are of a competent thickness, are receptacles for the remains of the clergy. These niches, which resemble the mouths of ovens, are, after the interment, closed with brick-work. I counted 500, all of which were filled; and I was told, that when a priest died, the body which had been longest deposited, was removed to make room for the new occupier."

The arsenal at Carracas contains some fine magazines for naval stores, and every convenience for careening and fitting ships. The cordage and cables are excellent. The first dock was begun in 1785:

there are now four. Cadiz also contains a school of navigation and a commodious observatory, so that no place is provided with a more complete naval establishment. It must always form, therefore, an important station, although the sun of its mercantile glory has probably set.

It is a ride of two hours from the *Puente de Zuarzo* to the delightful village of Chiclana, where many of the Cadiz merchants have their country-houses.* The road beyond the bridge is a causeway through marshes filled with salt-pits. The manufacture of salt is one of the most productive branches of industry in the environs of Cadiz. The salt-pits border all that part of the bay between the Puntal and Santa Maria. The quantity collected is prodigious. Bay salt is permitted to be exported on the payment of a trifling duty,† but all that is appropriated for interior consumption becomes subject to a royal monopoly. The heaps of salt at a distance give the morass on which it is collected, the appearance of a plain covered with pyramidal stone buildings. The entrance to Chiclana is

* The usual mode of reaching Chiclana is by water. "The inhabitants of Cadiz, being confined to the rock on which their city is built, have made the towns of Chiclana, Puerto Real, and Puerto Sta. Maria their places of resort, especially in the summer. The passage by water to the latter is, on an average, of about an hour and a half; and the intercourse between the two places is nearly as constant as between a large city and its suburbs. Boats filled with passengers are incessantly crossing from day-break till sunset."—DOBLADO'S *Letters*, p. 15.

† A preference has been given to this salt (Mr. Jacob says, owing to an unfounded prejudice) by the curers of Irish provisions, over that of Cheshire. The Portuguese carry large cargoes of it to the coasts of Galicia and the Asturias. It is imported also by the Swedes, the Danes, and the Dutch; and the French fishermen of St. Malo, Dieppe, and Grandville sometimes go to the bay of Cadiz for salt. Laborde states the quantity annually obtained from the salt-pits, at 21,300,000 cwt.

very beautiful, with the alameda, adjoining some gardens, on one side, and a wood of pines on the other. Chiclana contains about 8,000 inhabitants, exclusive of the occasional residents. In the two seasons of spring and autumn, it is crowded with the "beauty and fashion" of Cadiz; and for a few weeks, all the pleasures of the city, "splendid entertainments, balls, concerts, all the display of opulence, all the efforts of the toilet, are transferred hither by the amiable *Gaditanas.*" From the top of a conical hill near the town, surmounted by the beautiful church of Santa Ana, is obtained a fine view of the surrounding country as far as the mountains of Ronda. Near Chiclana is a sulphureous mineral spring, which is held in repute throughout Andalusia for the cure of cutaneous complaints; and all the hills in the vicinity are said to abound with mineral springs of various kinds, which are little known, and have never been analysed.

About half way from Cadiz to Puerto Santa Maria, is Puerto Real, situated also on the bay. At the close of the seventeenth century, this was a village with only 1,500 inhabitants: it now contains upwards of 10,000. When the French troops marched down to form the ineffectual siege of Cadiz in 1810, they experienced the fiercest opposition in this place: the inhabitants fired upon them in the streets from their household battlements, and the invaders in revenge blew down those from which they received the greatest annoyance, the ruins of which still remained in 1823, to attest the horrors of that sanguinary war. From Puerta Real, a fine road leads to Santa Maria. This town has already been described. Here Mr. Jacob witnessed a bull-fight, given in honour of Lord Wellington in November 1809; and as this diversion,

though now falling into disuse, is strictly national, and was once the favourite amusement of all classes, his description of it deserves a place in our account of the manners of the Gaditanians.

"The *Plaza de Toros* is a large amphitheatre, capable of holding 14,000 persons. On this occasion it was not full, and I suppose that not more than 10,000 people were present. The appearance of the assembly was striking, and a degree of interest was excited in every countenance, which I should previously have thought a much more important contest would scarcely have called forth. I entered the place at the moment when the first bull was killed, and horses gaily decorated were dragging him from the circle, amid the sounds of music and the applauding shouts of the people. Preparations were made for a fresh conflict. Three men were posted behind each other, about ten yards asunder, mounted on small but active horses, and armed with each a spear about fifteen feet long; and five or six men on foot, dressed in scarlet cloaks, were placed in other parts of the arena. The gates were thrown open, and the bull rushed in. He made towards the first horseman, who received him on the point of his spear, and wounded him between the shoulders. This turned him, and he attacked the second horseman with great fury; but, from the want either of dexterity in the rider, or of agility in the animal, the horse was dreadfully gored in the body, and his bowels fell on the ground. The combatants were soon disentangled, and the bull attacked the third horseman, who received him like the first, and wounded him severely. He now became furious, and galloped round the circle; but either from the loss of blood, or the pain he endured, he was fearful of facing the horsemen. The men on foot then began to irri-

tate him, by sticking small darts in his body; and, whenever he made a push at them, threw the cloak over his eyes, and with great dexterity avoided his thrust. This irritation was continued some time, till the animal, streaming with blood, became exhausted. The matador, or principal actor, then made his appearance, provided with a small sword and cloak: he advanced towards the bull, which ran and pushed at him, but the man received the thrust on his cloak, and stepping nimbly aside, withheld his blow, because the animal did not present himself in the exact attitude which the matador required for despatching him with grace. He then made a second advance towards the animal, and, while he was in the act of pushing at him, plunged the sword up to the hilt between his shoulders. The bull ran a few paces, staggered, and dropped dead. The trumpets sounded a flourish; horses galloped in, and being fastened to the carcass, dragged it away amid the applauding shouts of the spectators. Six or seven other bulls were then despatched in a similar manner, with only such variations as were occasioned by the different degrees of courage which the animals possessed. When the last bull was fighting, the matador so contrived it, that he gave him the *coup de grace* immediately under the box in which Lord Wellington and the English party were seated. Before this operation, he addressed himself to his lordship, and said with much dignity, that he should kill that bull to the health of King George the Third, which was quickly performed. His lordship threw him some money, and the entertainment closed.

"This bull-fight was represented to me as a very inferior exhibition, owing to the coolness of the

weather; the bulls having much more courage during the intense heat of summer, than at the present season (November). It is certainly an amusement attended with great cruelty both to the bulls and the horses, though not involving much danger to the men. From this they were partly secured by their own agility, and by the dexterous application of their cloaks when the animal charged them, and partly by the barriers placed round the circle, behind which they retired when pressed by the bull. How repugnant soever this diversion may appear to every delicate and feeling mind, it is more frequented and admired by the ladies than by the gentlemen. They attend these exhibitions in their gayest dresses, applaud the address of the inhuman combatants, and feel the greatest solicitude at the different critical turns of the fight. Many of the young country gentlemen may trace their ruin to these spectacles, as decidedly as Englishmen of the same class may trace theirs to Newmarket. In fact, it is the great object which engages the attention of that description of men distinguished by the term *majos.*" *

* Jacob's Travels, pp. 172—5. Sir John Carr witnessed a bull-fight given a few months before at Puerto S. Maria, the only place then in Spain at which they were allowed, and there only by connivance. The day usually selected for this brutal sport, was Sunday; and the poorest persons, it is said, would sell their very beds to raise money to attend the popular spectacle. One of the most inhuman parts of the game is, that the horses are frequently lacerated in so dreadful a manner, that their bowels trail on the ground, and even in that condition they are urged on by the rider till they drop; because the *piccadores* who are dismounted, are paid less. With equal barbarity, the dying horse is, by a "proud custom," denied the *coup de grace* which terminates the sufferings of the lordly bull. Unless several horses are killed, the fight is not deemed a good one. Sir John Carr saw an Andalusian bull gore

At Santa Maria, we are on the road to Seville, which we have already traced as far as Utrera, where

five horses to death. After the fight, the dead horses are given to the dogs; the bulls are the perquisite of the *matador*; and after all the performers are paid, and the proprietor of the amphitheatre remunerated, the surplus is devoted to some charitable institution! In a room adjoining the theatre, are a bier, a crucifix, and surgical instruments in case of accidents.—See CARR'S *Spain*, pp. 53—65. The best description of a bull-fight, perhaps, that has been given, is furnished by Childe Harold, and it deserves a place in this note.

"The Sabbath comes, a day of blessed rest;
What hallows it upon this Christian shore?
Lo! it is sacred to a solemn feast:
Hark! heard you not the forest monarch's roar?
Crashing the lance, he snuffs the spouting gore
Of man and steed, o'erthrown beneath his horn:
The throng'd arena shakes with shouts for more:
Yells the mad crowd o'er entrails freshly torn,
Nor shrinks the female eye, nor ev'n affects to mourn.

* * * * * *

"Thrice sounds the clarion; lo! the signal falls,
The den expands, and expectation mute
Gapes round the silent circle's peopled walls.
Bounds with one lashing spring the mighty brute,
And, wildly staring, spurns with sounding foot
The sand, nor blindly rushes on his foe:
Here, there, he points his threatening front, to suit
His first attack, wide waving to and fro
His angry tail; red rolls his eye's dilated glow.

"Sudden he stops; his eye is fix'd; away,
Away, thou heedless boy! prepare the spear:
Now is thy time to perish, or display
The skill that yet may check his mad career.
With well-timed croupe the nimble coursers veer;
On foams the bull, but not unscathed he goes;
Streams from his flank the crimson torrent clear:
He flies, he wheels, distracted with his throes;
Dart follows dart; lance, lance; loud bellowings speak his woes.

"Again he comes; nor dart nor lance avail,
Nor the wild plunging of the tortured horse;
Though man, and man's avenging arms assail,
Vain are his weapons, vainer is his force.

it falls into the road to Antequera. Mr. Jacob took a shorter route from Xeres by way of Lebrixa, passing by a dusty track through fields recently covered with corn, but at that time converted, from the want of rain, into barren plains,—leaving the high mountains of Borno on the right, and the Guadalquiver at a considerable distance on the left. The first view of Lebrixa is very impressive. Near the town is a

> One gallant steed is stretch'd, a mangled corse;
> Another, hideous sight! unseam'd appears:
> His gory chest unveils life's panting source;
> Though death-struck, still his feeble frame he rears;
> Staggering, but, stemming all, his lord unharm'd he bears.
>
> "Foil'd, bleeding, breathless, furious to the last,
> Full in the centre stands the bull at bay,
> Mid wounds, and clinging darts, and lances brast,
> And foes disabled in the brutal fray.
> And now the matadores around him play,
> Shake the red cloak, and poise the ready brand:
> Once more through all he bursts his thundering way—
> Vain rage! the mantle quits the conynge hand,
> Wraps his fierce eye—'tis past—he sinks upon the sand!
>
> "Where his vast neck just mingles with the spine,
> Sheathed in his form the deadly weapon lies.
> He stops—he starts—disdaining to decline:
> Slowly he falls, amidst triumphant cries,
> Without a groan, without a struggle dies.
> The decorated car appears—on high
> The corse is piled—sweet sight for vulgar eyes—
> Four steeds that spurn the rein, as swift as shy,
> Hurl the dark bulk along, scarce seen in dashing by."
>
> *Childe Harold*, canto i.

The common opinion assigns to bull-feasts a Moorish origin; but there is some reason to believe that they were previously introduced into Spain by the Roman conquerors, who are said to have derived them from the Greeks. The practice was prohibited by Pius V. under pain of excommunication incurred *ipso facto*; but his successors granted several mitigations on behalf of the *toreadors*. They were formally abolished in Spain by Charles IV. in 1805; but, to the disgrace of the Supreme Junta, were revived in 1809, at Santa Maria, for the amusement of the enlightened people of Cadiz, and in honour of Lord Wellesley

Roman camp, situated on an eminence, from the centre of which rises a once magnificent castle, now partly in ruins and partly converted into a monastery. The lower part of the walls is built of Roman bricks: the upper part is evidently of Moorish construction. The Roman part, which is in some places thirty feet high, gradually diminishes in thickness, each tier of bricks standing further in than the one below, so that the wall resembles a flight of steps: at the bottom it is so thick, that cells for the monks, nine feet in length, have been excavated in the walls. The remains of an ancient fosse are still visible. The town is by no means well built, but some of the public buildings have an imposing appearance: the *parroquia* is a very large and handsome structure, splendidly decorated, and containing some fine sculptures and paintings by Alonzo Cano, the prince of Spanish artists. By the side of an archway leading to the castle, is a marble female statue in tolerable preservation, except that it is headless. Mr. Jacob considers it to be undoubtedly Roman. Lebrixa is a town of high antiquity, having had for its founder no less illustrious a personage than Bacchus. In times somewhat less remote, it was made the head-quarters of the Pompeys, a short time before the decisive battle of Munda. The country in the immediate vicinity is undulating and very rich, abounding in olives, vines, and corn; but a few miles beyond it, Mr. Jacob entered on the Maresma, the vast marshy tract of rich pasture-land traversed, and in winter inundated, by the Guadalquiver. It extends, in this direction, almost to Seville, a distance of eight Spanish leagues, or above thirty miles. A single day's rain makes such an impression on the deep alluvial soil that a horse can scarcely pass it without going many

leagues about by the *Camino Real* (royal road) through Utrera and Alcala. One wretched, filthy *venta*, having no neighbour within ten miles, was the only habitation that presented itself on this plain, which is abandoned to herds of cattle and troops of horses. Mr. Jacob reached Seville soon after sunset.

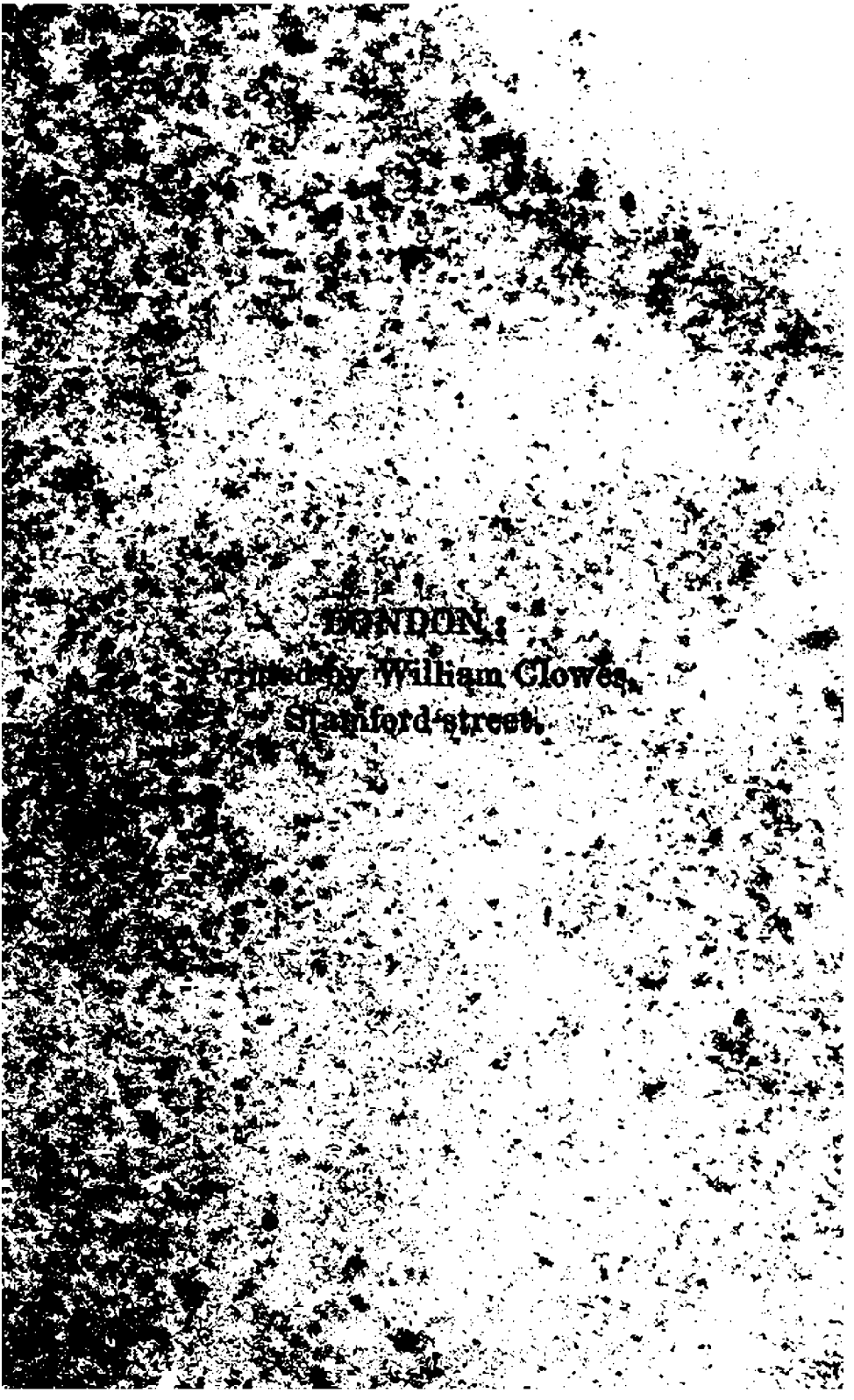
The high road from Cadiz to Seville leads from Utrera to Alcala de Guadayra, a distance of four leagues. This is a small town in the midst of a district fertilised by the Guadayra, the inhabitants of which are chiefly employed in making bread for the consumption of Seville, which is ten leagues distant. A fine road leads from Alcala for five leagues to Carmona. The high road from Cadiz to Madrid, which formerly led through Seville, turns off above Alcala. Carmona is a large town, standing boldly on a high hill. The castle, which is in ruins, covers a vast extent of ground, and contains many buildings that served as a palace and fortress to Don Pedro the Cruel. Like almost every town in this province, Carmona figures as a place of importance in Roman story; and remains of walls and inscriptions still remain to attest its ancient splendour. Two of the gates are Roman structures: the Cordova gate is a noble monument, apparently, M. Bourgoing says, of the time of Trajan; it has been, in some parts, absurdly retouched in the modern style. The town is pleasant and lively. From Carmona to Seville, a distance of five leagues, the road leads through vineyards, olive-grounds, and hedge-rows of aloes; yet, this beautiful country is almost without an inhabitant. Who would imagine that he was approaching a city which ranks as the second in the kingdom?—that famous and most ancient capital of Andalusia, of which Hercules was

the founder, which Julius Cæsar rebuilt and fortified, and Ferdinand III., *el rey santo*, worthy of completing the triumvirate, restored to Christendom; in fact, a city respecting which it has long been a proverb among the Andalusians, "the Gascons of Spain,"—

> "*Quien no ha visto Sevilla,*
> *No ha visto maravilla.*"
> He who has ne'er in Seville been,
> Has never yet a wonder seen.

But the description of this wonder must begin a new volume.

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.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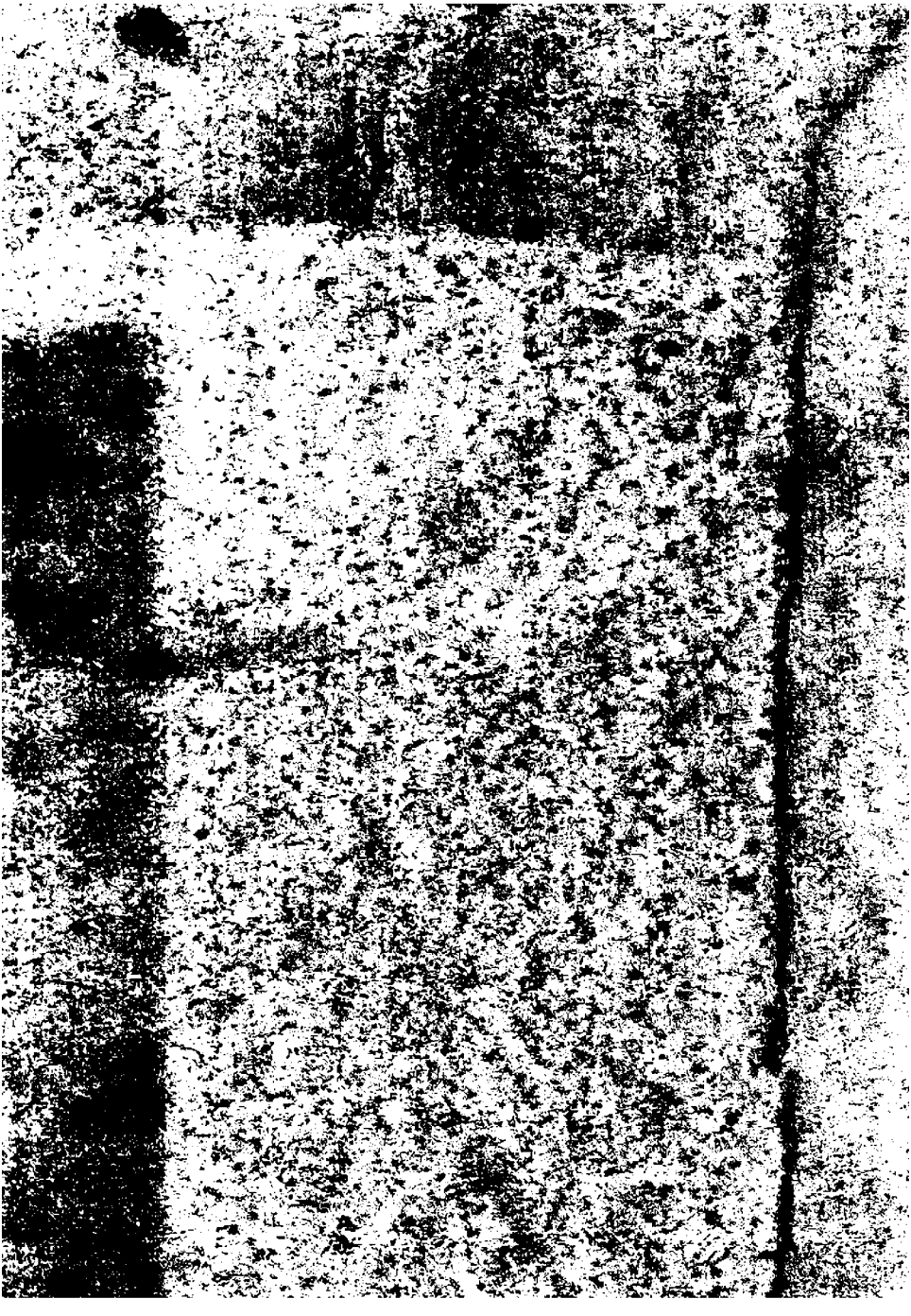

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